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REQUIRED READING FOR THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

THE BATTLE OF MONMOUTH.

BY JOHN G. NICOLAY.

THE battle of Monmouth, fought in the fourth year of the Revolutionary War, was notable as being the culminating incident of a series of events, military, political, and personal, and, to judge properly of its cumulative interest, it is necessary to review these in their sequence, and to trace their relation to each other.

The closing campaigns of the year 1777 were attended with very unequal results. Notwithstanding the spirited opposition made by Washington and his army against the advance of the enemy, the battles of Brandywine and Germantown had been lost, and the British not only gained possession of Philadelphia through the first, but remained undisturbed in its occupancy by the second. Soon also they reduced the forts of the Delaware, and opened that river to give them unobstructed water transportation for supplies and reinforcements. The discouragement caused by these reverses was very much relieved by the cheering news that Gates had compelled the surrender of Burgoyne's whole army at Saratoga on the Hudson. Yet greatly as that event buoyed up the American cause and afforded it promise of future triumph, it furnished only moral cheer and support to Washington's army, which stood in distressing need of material comfort and assistance.

As an entire army it had never known what it was to be well supplied. But now as the cold weather came on, and Washington felt himself obliged to go into winter quarters at Valley Forge, the want of proper food and clothing reached a point where it occa-

sioned actual suffering. Yet there they remained, only fifteen or twenty miles from the British army, which was safely fortified and comfortably housed, possessing an abundance of money, food, and clothing, and with a Tory element in the population numerous enough to afford a considerable share of sympathy and encouragement.

It is easy to imagine that the American soldiers in their cheerless log huts at Valley Forge, must have often reflected with bitterness on the humiliating contrast in their conditions.

What the soldiers thus felt, came with tenfold bitterness upon the mind and heart of Washington. He nerved and encouraged his men by the example of his own cheerful endurance, redoubled his appeals to Congress to send him assistance, and occupied himself diligently to utilize the time of his enforced idleness by employing it in improving the organization and discipline of his army.

Deficiency of supplies was only one element of a still more serious difficulty with which he had to deal. The loss of battles, and the necessity of retreat, and more especially the fact that Congress had been driven from Philadelphia, had started into sudden activity both in and out of the army the men who were unfriendly to him. In the popular eye, his want of success contrasted unfavorably with the brilliant achievement of Gates in capturing Burgoyne. Gates' name therefore became the rallying point of a movement to supersede Washington; and the former appears to have been sufficiently

ambitious, as well as weak enough to lend himself to the scheme.

This intrigue is known as the Conway cabal, because its central figure was General Thomas Conway, an Irishman who had received a military education in France, and attained the rank of colonel in the French army; and who, like a number of other foreign officers, tendered his services to the Continental Congress in 1777. Whatever may have been his military ability—and he had shown gallant conduct in the battle of Brandywine—modesty was not one of his virtues. Though he had been less than a year in America, he already claimed the highest honors, and led the plot to supplant Washington with Gates. It signally failed, but for a time it was a serious menace to the personal fortunes of the general-in-chief, and still more to the success of the cause.

Gates, who visited Congress personally to further his own promotion, was sent back to his command with orders pointedly placing him under the authority of Washington; while Conway, who petulantly offered his resignation, found it to his great chagrin quickly accepted, and himself thus thrown out of the service.

The exposure and failure of the Conway cabal, the resolve and acquiescence of the patriot leaders that Washington should retain the chief command, paved the way for the much needed reform in the organization and discipline of the army. The quartermaster-general had not exercised his functions for some months, and Washington had written from Valley Forge to the president of Congress:

"I do not know from what cause this alarming deficiency, or rather, total failure of supplies arises; but unless more vigorous exertions and better regulations take place in that line [the commissaries' department] immediately the army must dissolve."

There seems little doubt that personal intrigues played a considerable part in these derangements of the military machinery; and when the air became cleared of these jealousies and cross-purposes, organization succeeded with greater ease and rapidity. Greene was appointed quartermaster-general, and under the spur of absolute necessity supplies were brought forward with more system.

Washington had experienced no little difficulty in his dealings with foreign officers. The American commissioner in Paris

had engaged them too freely and had been altogether too indiscriminate in his promises. The soldiers of real merit who came to offer America their services and blood, were encompassed by the usual proportion of adventurers and pretenders. Even after these had been winnowed and Congress had given commissions to the more deserving, the general-in-chief frequently found it difficult to assign them to employment or commands suited to their rank, without displacing or offending American officers who had already earned distinction. But in many instances high qualifications and devotion were so marked as to compensate for the cases of selfishness and deficiency.

Two examples of special merit stand out in the annals of the Revolution. One was Baron von Steuben, a German officer forty-eight years of age, of thorough military acquirements and experience in European campaigns, who had been an aid of Frederick the Great, and enjoyed high rank and emoluments at German courts. Persuaded by the French government to come to America with the special object of affording the army the benefit of his professional knowledge, he resigned his European offices and salaries, and, supplied only with temporary funds advanced by the French government, came and offered his services to Congress without making any conditions as to rank, pay, or command.

"If [he wrote to Washington] the distinguished ranks in which I have served in Europe should be an obstacle, I should rather serve under your excellency as a volunteer, than to be an object of discontent among such deserving officers as have already distinguished themselves among you."

Congress appreciated his disinterestedness, and Washington assigned him to duty as inspector general; and Steuben, though he spoke English imperfectly, not only transformed the awkward, ragged soldiers of Valley Forge into alert regiments that could perform drill and evolution, but won the friendship and admiration of the backwoodsmen by his hearty kindness and solicitude and his liberal tact in adapting himself to the tempers and necessities of the Continental Army under the new conditions of American campaigning.

The other is the case of the Marquis de Lafayette, a wealthy French nobleman only twenty years old, who, following the impulses of high romantic enthusiasm, had come nearly a year earlier than Steuben to aid the



Marquis de Lafayette.



General Henry Knox.

American cause. At that time France had not openly taken sides, and threw obstacles in the way of an adventure which might compromise the neutrality it still professed. But Lafayette persisted, secretly purchased a ship, and coming to Congress offered to serve as a volunteer and at his own expense.

This generous proposal, coupled with his rank and distinguished connection, induced Congress to accept his services, and commission him a major general. The same considerations, together with his modest and winning personal manners, secured him the immediate and warm friendship of Washington, who at once made him a member of his military family. Notwithstanding his youth and inexperience, he manifested such qualities of courage, zeal, and judgment, as led to his being intrusted at first with small, and then with larger military commands; and before Steuben's arrival he was already formally assigned, both by Congress and the general-in-chief, to lead a division in the Continental Army.

While the personal intrigues connected with the Conway cabal were coming to a head during the autumn and winter of 1777-8, and the personal relations of high army officers to each other and to the service were, through changes in appointments, reaching a healthier organization and growing into a more efficient system, changes had occurred in international politics with important and far-reaching influence upon the war. The battles of Brandywine and Germantown, though resulting in defeat, nevertheless made a profound impression upon public opinion in Europe, and especially in France, as demonstrating the strength of the American Revolution, followed almost immediately as they had been by the surrender of Burgoyne.

The French government, hitherto friendly only in secret, now resolved openly to aid the American cause. During the days when Washington and his army at Valley Forge were undergoing their greatest despondency and severest suffering, the American commissioners in Paris were perfecting treaties, one, a treaty of commerce, and the other a treaty of alliance, by which the two nations bound themselves to mutual assistance to secure American independence. These treaties were signed early in February, 1778.

The military events producing this elation and procuring this help from France had wrought an exactly contrary effect in Eng-

land. The British ministry was thrown into great despondency by Burgoyne's surrender; and receiving intimations that France was about to intervene actively in behalf of the United States, resolved to forestall French influence by making peace. Two acts of Parliament, known as the Conciliatory Bills, were hastily passed, and signed by the king on March 11, 1778, sending commissioners to America, offering to abandon to the revolted colonies almost every point of controversy in the original quarrel except independence. The tax on tea was repealed, future taxes were to be applied locally for the benefit of the colony where levied, and the commissioners were empowered to make agreements for cessation of hostilities, for suspending obnoxious acts of Parliament, and for the granting of pardons.

Even before the passage of these acts rough drafts of them were sent to America and circulated there, but they utterly failed of their intended effect. They were denounced and spurned by the people. Washington wrote an earnest letter against them, and when the commissioners finally arrived, Congress refused to hold any intercourse with them unless Great Britain would first either formally acknowledge American independence or withdraw its entire land and naval forces from the country. It is quite possible that this effort at conciliation had something to do with the lethargy and inactivity into which the British army in Philadelphia fell during the whole winter and spring. Nothing but forays and skirmishes came to pass, the Americans on their side being compelled by necessity to a similar policy.

In the month of April, however, when the new organization, the winter's drill, and the gratifying increase in men and supplies had infused new spirit as well as strength into the army, Washington submitted to his generals in writing, the questions whether to attack Philadelphia, to operate against New York, or still to remain on the defensive, awaiting a more favorable opportunity for some decisive blow against the enemy.

The council of war appointed by Congress formally considered these questions on the 8th of May, and decided in favor of the latter policy. There had already been indications that such an opportunity might arise. Since the alliance with France, the arrival of a French fleet might suddenly close the Delaware, and the British ministry therefore



General Nathaniel Greene.

gave orders that Philadelphia must be evacuated. A change of command accompanied this order, and in the first weeks of May Sir Henry Clinton arrived in Philadelphia to succeed Lord Howe. Rumors and signs of the intended evacuation soon came to the knowledge of Washington, and he put his army on the alert to take advantage of any chances that might offer.

Lafayette with his division was thrown across the Schuylkill better to observe the enemy. The British, learning of the movement, devised a skillful plan and sent out a greatly superior force to entrap him; but his vigilance and good judgment discovered and eluded the danger, and he brought away his detachment without loss. The exploit gave Washington increased confidence in his fitness to command.

The preparations of the British to evacuate Philadelphia had been so secretly made that the movement was well in progress before Washington became certain of it. Their course lay across the Delaware and through New Jersey toward Staten Island, and the question once more pressed for decision,—should he follow and attack them, or move rapidly to the Hudson?

Important detachments had been sent from the enemy's forces, 5,000 to the West Indies and 3,000 to Florida, reducing their army to 9,000 or 10,000, while Washington's had increased to 12,000 or 13,000. This superiority of numbers seemed to warrant an attack, but on the other hand it was argued with much force that in the moment of the alliance with France, when important military and naval help might be expected from that nation, it was bad policy to risk everything upon a general engagement. General Charles Lee, second in command to Washington, strongly urged this view, and a majority of the coun-

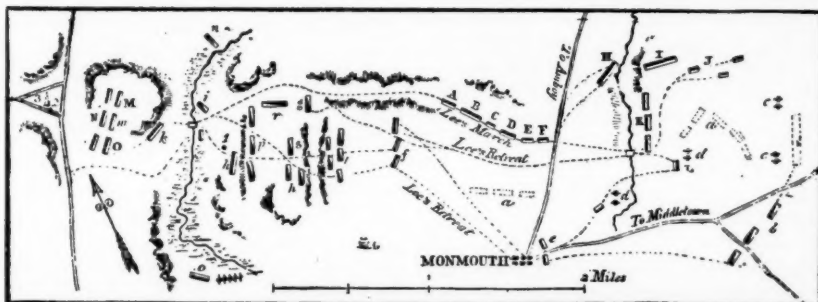
cil of war decided that it was best merely to follow and harass the enemy.

Lee, like Gates, had been, and was still posing in the background, as a possible rival to Washington, though this pretension had greatly suffered by his imprudent exposure about a year before, in which he was taken prisoner by a small British scouting party. He had only lately been exchanged and returned to duty.

The British army, leaving Philadelphia on the 18th of June, made slow progress through New Jersey, owing to continued rains, extreme heat, and the incumbrance of heavy and long baggage trains. The more ardent spirits among the American officers, Greene, Wayne, Lafayette, Steuben, Hamilton, and others, urged vigorous pursuit and attack, and Washington's judgment inclined in the same direction. He at length ordered forward a heavy detachment of 4,000 toward the enemy's line of retreat to seize a favorable moment for inflicting a damaging blow.

Lee's seniority entitled him to the command of this advance, but as he had advised against fighting, he yielded it up to Lafayette who sought and requested it of him. On reflection Lee changed his mind, and demanded the command as his due. His whim was acceded to, and he was sent forward with reinforcements to join and supersede Lafayette.

The British march was now deflected eastward toward Sandy Hook, and the head of their column had passed and halted a little beyond Freehold or Monmouth Court House on the morning of the 26th of June. Lee, with the American advance, was at Englishtown, and Washington, with the main army at Cranberry, within three miles of Lee. A heavy storm appears to have delayed both armies, but on the evening of the 27th Wash-



Plan of the Battle of Monmouth.

ington gave Lee orders to attack the British line as soon as it should move next morning, saying he would support him with the whole army.

Lee began the attack as directed, and for a short time drove the enemy. But soon some of his officers were surprised when the resistance became stronger, by his ordering several retrograde movements, and the impulse of vigorous attack being once stopped and lost, there ensued a confusion and almost a panic of retreat. Washington, who, according to agreement, was bringing up the whole army, was dumfounded to hear of a retreat at the beginning of the battle, and his surprise changed to violent anger when informed that it had been occasioned by the orders of Lee. Riding forward in haste the general-in-chief met Lee and demanded explanations in terms of hot resentment. His replies were confused and unsatisfactory, and Washington gave him peremptory directions for forming a new line and checking the enemy. Lee promised that he would be the last to leave the field, and Washington hastened back to place the main army in a strong supporting position.

It appeared afterwards that Lee was neither wholly blamable nor entirely blameless. The British general, comprehending his danger, had detained a heavy division to form his rear guard, and with this had not only re-



Old Court House at Monmouth.

pelled the assault, but turned back with the intention of crushing the American advance under Lee.

Lee's new line was scarcely formed when it was assailed by the enemy's advance, and though under his orders it made spirited op-

position, and he, as promised, was the last to leave the field, it was gradually forced back to the main position under Washington's immediate command. Here, on the afternoon of June 28, 1778, the main battle of Monmouth was fought.

The picture on the opposite page is a fair representation of a contemporary artist's conception of a scene in the battle.*

By a series of detached assaults the British troops attempted first to turn the American left, commanded by Lord Stirling, and afterwards in a determined bayonet charge led by Lord Monckton, who was killed, to drive the detachment of Wayne from an advantageous position in front of the American right, commanded by General Greene. In both these attempts the enemy were signally repulsed, and when they had retired, Washington made prompt dispositions to advance and attack them in turn. But before these arrangements were completed night had come, and the American troops were ordered to lie on their arms and resume the battle next morning.

Next morning, however, the enemy had disappeared, leaving their dead on the field and their wounded in the deserted camp. Their total loss by the battle was 400, but it is estimated that in addition such wholesale straggling and desertion had occurred during the retreat as to diminish the British force fully 2,000. The Americans, on their part, lost between 200 and 300, and the withdrawal of the enemy had been so sudden that Washington deemed it inexpedient to make further pursuit.

In a petulant correspondence which he began on the day after the battle, General Lee demanded a court-martial, and Washington gratified him by immediately convening one, which began its sessions within a week, and before which he charged Lee with disobedience of orders, unnecessary and shameful retreat, and disrespect to the commander-in-chief. The court found Lee guilty on the charges, omitting however the word "shameful," and sentenced him to suspension from

* This is supposed to represent the part of the action in which "Captain Molly" displayed such presence of mind. A shot from the enemy having killed her husband, who was managing one of the field pieces, she sprang to take his place and continued his work with coolness and courage. Washington and Greene are the most prominent figures on the right; Knox, Hamilton, and Cadwalader appear farther in the background. A portion of the British army is seen in the distance.

command for a year. Before the lapse of that period he provoked a quarrel with Congress which ended in his dismissal.

It is not so much for its characteristics as a conflict of arms that the battle of Monmouth becomes notable, but rather for the indirect results which set it apart as an historical turning point. In addition to the political and personal changes already mentioned, it brought about the disgrace and removal of

Washington's only remaining rival, and left him undisputed leader for the rest of the war.

It completed the expulsion of the British from Pennsylvania and New Jersey, and, as its chief point of interest, it was the last battle of the Revolution fought in the northern states. Thereafter the War of Independence drifted to the south, where it practically ended, three years later, at Yorktown, in Virginia.



The Battle of Monmouth.
From a painting by George Washington Custis.

DOMESTIC AND SOCIAL LIFE OF THE COLONISTS.*

BY EDWARD EVERETT HALE.

V.

THE reference made in the last chapter to Washington's accounts with England has given the reader some idea of the comfort and luxury in which his family lived. This was in no sort exceptional, at that time, among the families of the better class in Virginia, Carolina, and in the Middle States. All parties were largely dependent for manufactured goods on England. The custom of the time was that they should ship their articles of produce directly

to England. In Washington's case, his tobacco crops were so large that the ships which took them sometimes took no other invoices than his.

It should always be remembered that, at the time when Washington took the command of the Continental Army, in 1775, being then a man forty-three years of age, he was supposed to be the richest gentleman in America. His family life at Mount Vernon, then, gives a good idea of life in the most elegant and comfortable circles. And it would appear, from the correspondence of that time, and such other authorities as we

*Special Course for C. L. S. C. Graduates.

have, that such people as the Washingtons and their neighbors knew how to live comfortably and luxuriously, quite as well as do the rich people of to-day.

Washington had fine horses, he had a pack of hounds, he was very fond of riding, and, in the autumn, he and his friends went out on hunting parties quite as an English gentleman of the same time might have done. He had in the river his barge or barges, with trained crews of negro boatmen in uniform. The officers of the English navy found out that here was a pleasant place to visit, and some excuse or other would carry up one and another of the king's ships to anchor so near Mount Vernon that the gentlemen on board could enjoy its hospitalities.

It may be said, in passing, that this sort of luxurious life is not apt to make patriots; but in the midst of it all Washington was regularly attending to his duties as a member of the Virginia legislature, and, long before he assumed the command of the army, he was known in that region as the leader of the popular party and by the proud title of "the Virginia patriot."

It must be observed, indeed, that all through the colonies, the penury which we have tried to describe as belonging to the beginnings everywhere, had given way by the middle of the eighteenth century, to very great comfort and sometimes to luxury. It is true that the passion for emigration is in the blood of the people of all the different colonies. Perhaps the students of heredity will yet prove to us that this desire to make a new home is one of the desires which most often transmits itself to men's posterity.

It is, for instance, a curious illustration of the "thirst for the horizon" that Ensign Garfield of Watertown, the first Garfield in New England, had a son who broke up a piece of land in a new tract and built upon it, that he in turn had a son who did the same, and that, generation after generation, the Garfield of each time moved farther westward and established himself in a new home, till we come down to General Garfield, the good president. In that case, there is the remarkable addition, that for the first three generations, these men moved upon grants of land which had been given them in recognition of military services. Now, where men move into new houses in new communities, there cannot usually be the results of large

wealth around them, till you come down to the magical arrangements of our generation. The whole frontier, therefore, had the simplicity of life which has been described in the beginning.

But in the old towns there was growing up a comfortable form of life, which to this day is remembered as not unworthy of the imitation of our elegant and somewhat dainty times. Thus, near the beginning of the century, Harvard College asked the most distinguished preacher in Massachusetts, Benjamin Wadsworth, to become its president. This means that the state of Massachusetts asked him to assume the presidency of the college, which was then carried on somewhat as a state normal school is now carried on by a state legislature. Wadsworth squarely refused, unless he could have a good house to live in, and the state therefore built him a house, which still stands at Cambridge.

When I was a chaplain in Harvard College, I occupied two rooms in this house, which are not very different from what they were in the days when Wadsworth lived there. I frequently heard my guests say that the house was as comfortable a house as they wanted to live in. It is a good suggestion of the older phase of what the young architects now call "colonial architecture."

A later house in the same line is one well known through the country as the Longfellow house. This is a house built, as is supposed, in the year 1759, and afterwards inhabited by John Vassal, one of the great people of that time, who left it because he was a Tory. The house being empty, the state took possession of it for the time, and let Washington occupy it as his headquarters.

There are elegant houses in Cambridge to-day which have been built within the last twenty years, with all the wealth and luxury of our modern appointments, but I should say quite confidently that there is not a house in Cambridge which any person would rather live in than this Longfellow house. The rooms are high, singularly elegant in their interior decoration, and the house is comfortably planned. It stands well back from the road, the space in front was shaded with magnificent elms, the gardens and other appointments were generous and intelligently prepared, the whole establishment, indeed, showed not only wealth, but good taste and

thorough acquaintance with the best which Europe had to offer at the same time.

We had in Boston at that time, and I think the same is true of the other seaports of the coast, a considerable arrival in summer of West India merchants and planters of wealth, who came to the north to be cool, exactly as southern people like to go to Newport to-day. I am disposed to think, what I cannot prove, that Jamaica Plain, a well-known suburb of Boston, received its name from the frequent arrival there of such settlers. The old houses of such persons still stand. When the Revolution came, of course their visits came to an end. But in the new life of the prosperous privateers or tradesmen, who stepped into the places which were left vacant when old Tories went back to kick their heels in London anterooms, there were men enough to buy these houses cheap and to continue their hospitalities.

These are external indications which show how the increasing wealth of all the colonies was affecting the manners and daily habits of the people. The publication of books in America was considerable. After the first generation of the century but few books were sent to England to be printed. The printing and press-work, indeed, of the presses of Franklin and other printers, might be fairly said to be as good as that of the average English printing of that time. The failure most to be observed is in the quality of the paper. This paper, which was of American make, was not then the best in the world, as the best American paper is said now to be.

The admirable catalogue prepared by the American Antiquarian Society gives more than two hundred titles for the publications now known of the years 1750-51. This includes pamphlets and reprints from English books, but it is also to be remembered that many publications were so truly ephemeral that they left no trace even for the diligent students who compiled this catalogue. The number is large enough to show how considerable was the home literary activity.

In ecclesiastical matters, the intensity of the theological convictions of the early settlers had certainly passed by, yet the clergy in all the colonies were leading persons, the customs of worship were well observed, and the "meeting-house," as the New Englanders fondly called it, was, in all the colonies, really the place of meeting for the people. In many localities they will still point out to

you the place where the old "nooning house" was erected and maintained, which was a place given to offices not unlike those of a modern vestry in a modern church. There were arrangements where a cup of tea, when tea came in, could be warmed, and where the lunches of the several worshippers could be displayed and the little friendly hospitalities of the hour between services could be exercised. This was all done that people might not have to spend the noon in the meeting-house itself, which was cold in winter, having no provision for warming excepting the little foot-stoves which the worshippers brought with them.

When Whitefield passed through the country, there came with him a wave of religious enthusiasm, which, to a certain extent, modified and improved the habits of church-going, but we must not suppose that any class of society entered upon life from day to day with the distinctly theological or ecclesiastical hatreds or sympathies of a hundred years before. There was more religion, but there was less acrimony of theological discussion.

As for education, there was an improvement from the middle of the seventeenth century. When one has said this he has said almost all. It has often been noted that the first generation after an emigration falls back in mere literary culture from the attainments of the more energetic and better trained men who led the original movement. Certainly this is so in Virginia and in New England in the history of the seventeenth century. The handwriting of records is not so good as it was when the records were written by those who had been trained in England; and in other matters one sees that the education of the country had declined. But, by the time that all the colonies came round to the year 1750, there were schools maintained and kept up to a tolerably good standard. In the matter of writing, the leading men wrote better than the leading men of America write to-day. The handwriting of Washington, of Hancock, of the Adamses, of Patrick Henry, or of Rutledge is better than the handwriting of almost any six men in the same position in life now.

It is indeed pathetic to see how much manual work these great men had to give to this business of letter-writing. There are, in the Massachusetts archives, long despatches from Benjamin Franklin, which would al-

most make an autograph collector go crazy, of which, when Franklin was the agent of the colony in London, he was obliged to make his own copies. They are on enormous sheets of foolscap paper, written in his elegant and careful hand, from the beginning to the end. The introduction of copying presses belongs to a late period in the American Revolution. There is a curious correspondence between Jefferson and Franklin, as to the method pursued in France in making such copies, and Franklin attempts to introduce such copying into the American departments.

The reader who has followed what has been said of the commerce of the colonies will see that the wealth of some families, particularly persons in mercantile life, became very large. The figures were not as large as of those of to-day, but, as has sometimes been humorously said, a dollar went a great deal farther then than it goes now. In a curious account of Boston, written by a traveler named Bennett, in the year 1740, he gives these statements as to the cost of food there. They may be compared with some statements which were published in the preceding chapter.

"Their beef, mutton, and lamb are as good as ever I desire to eat. Their poultry, too, of all sorts are as fine as can be desired, and they have plenty of fine fish of various kinds, all of which are very cheap. Take the butchers' meat all together, in every season of the year, and I believe it is about twopence per pound sterling, though they will not allow it to be near so much if they are asked about it; because the best beef and mutton, lamb and veal are often sold for sixpence per pound of New England money, which is some small matter more than one penny sterling.* But I take my calculation to be near the truth, from the observation I have made, because in the depth of winter the best butchers' meat is sometimes a shilling a pound, and sometimes fourteenpence.†

"Poultry in their season are exceeding cheap. As good a turkey may be bought for about two shillings sterling as we can buy in London for six or seven, and as fine a goose for twopence as would cost three shillings sixpence or four shillings in London. The cheapest of all the several kinds of poultry are a sort of wild pigeon, which are in season the latter end of June and so continue until September. They are large, and

finer than those we have in London, and are sold here for eighteenpence a dozen,* which is about threepence sterling, and sometimes for half of that.

"Fish, too, is exceeding cheap. They sell a fine fresh cod that will weigh a dozen pounds or more, just taken out of the sea, which are generally alive, for about twopence sterling. They have smelts, too, which they sell as cheap as sprats are in London. Salmon, too, they have in great plenty, which is as fine as any I ever ate of anywhere in my life, and those they sell for about a shilling apiece, which will weigh fourteen or fifteen pounds.

"They have venison very plenty, which had almost slipped my memory. They will sell as fine a haunch for half a crown† as would cost full thirty shillings in England, and I think the venison is not in the least inferior to that we have in England. Bread is much cheaper than we have in England, but is not near so good. Butter is very fine, and cheaper than ever I bought any in London; the best is sold all summer for threepence a pound.

"But as for cheese, it is neither cheap nor good. Milk is sold here for about the same price as at London, only here they give full measure—cider being cheap likewise, and the people used to it, they do not encourage malt liquors. They pay about three shillings a barrel for cider. Their fuel is altogether wood, and is one of the most expensive articles of housekeeping in Boston, but up the country they have it for cutting."

It will easily be seen that in a country where food was so cheap, where land might be had for the asking, and where timber could be had for the cutting, it did not cost nearly as much to live as it costs now. Money, therefore, as has been said, went much farther then than it does now. Even wages, which were very high in comparison with wages in Europe, would be considered low on our standards to-day.

In any new period of luxury and wealth, the first display of increased prosperity is in the houses of the people. What has been said, then, of the admirable houses of the colonial times must be considered as showing the very best side of colonial comfort.

Next to this, I suppose, we should speak, as a token of wealth, of the customs of the people. The old portraits by Copley‡ and Black-

* This refers to paper money of the time.

† That is, is sometimes sixteen and two-thirds cents, and sometimes twenty cents.

* Meaning again New England money

† Two shillings and sixpence.

‡ John Singleton Copley, born in Boston, 1738, died in London 1813. He was the father of Lord Lyndhurst.

burn and the other artists of the middle of the century, show great elegance of velvets, satins, and laces. Proud and happy indeed is the girl to-day who can bring forward at her wedding, as some girls can, the brocade which her great-grandmother wore a hundred and forty years ago at hers. The modern looms make nothing better than the brocades which the rich colonists then imported for the decoration of their wives and daughters.

The luxury of dress attracted Whitefield's attention, and he notes some of its vanities: "Jewels, patches,* and gay apparel are commonly worn by the female sex. I observed little boys commonly dressed up in the pride of life, and the infants that were brought to baptism are wrapped in such finery that one would think they were brought thither to be initiated into, rather than to renounce, 'the pomps and vanities of this wicked world.' "

Mr. Scudder has copied from a catalogue of Copley's works these accounts of the costumes of sitters:

"He is dressed in a brown coat and richly embroidered satin waistcoat, and a full wig.

"The color of the picture is of a subdued richness, and represents the dress as being a gold laced brown velvet coat and small-clothes.

"He is represented as being dressed in a blue velvet doublet with slashed sleeves, evidently a fancy dress. The collar is large and trimmed with white lace.

"The dress is of brown satin, the sleevesuffed at the elbows and a lace shawl over the neck. A pearl necklace and a small lace cap completes the costume.

"She was a handsome woman, and is dressed in a bodice of blue satin, and an overdress of pink silk trimmed with ermine. In her bosom she wears a damask rosebud.

"Her picture represents her as wearing a robe of olive brown brocaded damask, with a dark green cloak ornamented with scarlet. The dress is cut square in the neck, over which is thrown a muslin kerchief. Embroidered muslin

* The fashion of wearing patches on the face was brought by the colonists from their old home. They were made of court-plaster—so called because it was used by ladies of the court for this purpose. These court patches were cut "into the shape of crescents, stars, circles, diamonds, hearts, crosses; and some even went so far as to patch their faces with a coach and four, a ship in full sail, a chateau, etc."

sleeves, a muslin cap, and a pearl necklace complete the costume.

"Her dress is of white satin, with a train of purple velvet, wrought with gold. She has a Blenheim spaniel in her lap."

We must not suppose that Blenheim spaniels and elegant laces came to the fortune of many people. But all classes of people lived in comfort, unless they had their intemperance to thank for their penury, or had taken the chances of the hardship of the frontier. Wentworth of New Hampshire, one of Lord North's Tory spies in the Revolution, writes to him that there are many colonies where they never heard of a poor-rate and never saw a pauper. The great advantages of an even distribution of property and of ready promotion to all who deserved promotion, are observed everywhere.

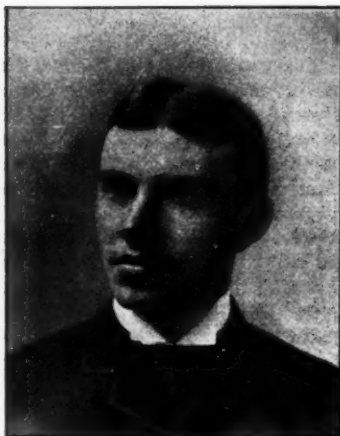
As to the arts and invention, the colonies suffered, as every country must suffer which is dependent on a foreign government. They had no patent laws or copyrights, and no protection of infant industries except what the long ocean voyages gave them. England was determined, as an English statesman said, that they should not so much as make a hobnail for themselves. The consequence was, that if a boy showed a genius for art—as Fulton and West and Copley did—he had to go to Europe. Genius for invention appeared nowhere, until the Revolution compelled men to use home talent.

Nothing is more pathetic in the history of New England, for instance, than the thought of the talent which was repressed through one hundred and fifty years. All men are sure now, that in the people of that stock, there is remarkable power of artistic representation, and there is a knack for invention which is almost proverbial. But the spinning wheel of 1770 and that of 1630 were the same. And the very musket which was fired at Bunker Hill had been sent from England in Queen Anne's wars. To the fine arts, no great painter came forward in New England except Copley.

Such is the repression of native ability,—natural and indeed necessary among persons so unfortunate that they are born without a country.

(The end.)

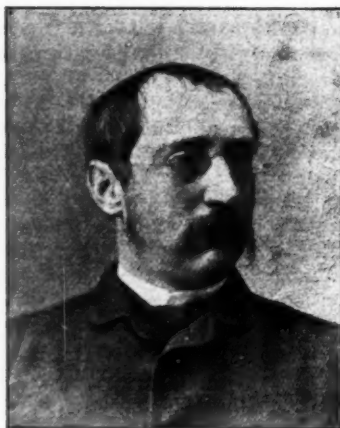
THE CHAUTAUQUAN.



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A GROUP OF OUR CONTRIBUTORS.

TRADING COMPANIES.

BY JOHN H. FINLEY.

II.

THE HOLLAND COMPANY.

OF the territory which England ceded to the United States by the treaty of 1783, the several states then in existence claimed the portions included within the territorial limits of their colonial charters. The characteristic vagueness of these instruments and the indifference of sovereigns to the grants of their predecessors naturally brought parts of this territory under controversy.

One tract to which there were conflicting claims lay within the present boundaries of the state of New York. Under its charter, Massachusetts considered its possessions continuous* on the west with those of the United States. But the charter granted by Charles II. in 1663 to the Duke of York was understood to confer the right of property and jurisdiction as far north as the bounds of Canada, and this claim the province of New York advanced and was so far successful that previous to the Revolution Massachusetts had apparently relinquished her claim to that portion of the state of New York between its present eastern boundary and the western limits of settlement. Under an act of 1785 delegates of the state of Massachusetts executed a deed, ceding all the territory claimed by it west of the meridian passing through the western end of Lake Ontario, to the United States; New York having a few years previously accepted this line as its western boundary. The controversy relative to lands east of this line had the cognizance of Congress and a tribunal was instituted to settle the dispute, but no decision was made by this body.

In 1786, however, a convention between the two states was concluded at Hartford, by which Massachusetts ceded to New York all claim to the government, sovereignty, and jurisdiction of the lands in controversy and New York ceded to Massachusetts the right of pre-emption† from the Indians, of all land

lying west of a line running from the boundary of Pennsylvania due north through Seneca Lake to Lake Ontario, excepting only a strip one mile wide extending the length of the Niagara River.

The pre-emption right to this territory comprising about six million acres was in 1788 contracted by the state of Massachusetts to two citizens, Oliver Phelps and Nathaniel Gorham. Succeeding in extinguishing the Indian title to about one third of the entire tract, but unable to make full payment as contracted, they were confirmed in the possession of this portion and the remainder was relinquished to Massachusetts.

In 1791 the legislature of this state conveyed to Robert Morris a tract twelve miles wide adjoining the Phelps and Gorham purchase on the west. By subsequent deeds the territory lying between the western boundary of this tract and the western boundary of New York, the northern boundary of Pennsylvania and Lake Ontario, was also conveyed to Robert Morris, the state of Massachusetts retaining one undivided sixtieth of each of the four tracts comprised in these conveyances. But soon after, these reserved portions were also granted to Morris, Massachusetts thus relinquishing all claims to territory within the state of New York.

The lands embraced in these four tracts named, were in 1792-3 purchased from Morris by certain persons, resident in Holland, forming what is known as the "Holland Company." The members of this company being aliens and under the then existing laws unable to hold and convey real estate within the state of New York, the conveyances were made for their benefit to trustees. Subsequent acts of the legislature, however, declaring valid conveyance to aliens who were not subjects of powers at war with the United States, and authorizing such aliens to devise and convey lands held by them, permitted

the opportunity of purchasing land. In the United States pre-emption laws "provide for vesting the title to parts of the public land—not more than 160 acres to one person—in such settlers as inhabit and improve the same, upon payment of a nominal price." A Latin derivative from *emere*, to buy, and *pro*, before.

* Latin *con*, with, and *terminus*, border. Having the same boundaries.

† The first right of purchase; the right to preference in C-Feb.

the titles of the Holland purchases to vest in the names of the Dutch proprietors. Although the Company really consisted of three or four companies, each had members who belonged to the others, and as their interests were practically identical one agent was employed to attend to the management of the entire tract.

The sale by Robert Morris to the Company was made under the agreement on his part to extinguish as soon as practicable and, with the assistance of the Company, the Indian title to these lands. Accordingly the Seneca Indians, who were in occupancy of all this territory, at his solicitation held a council at which were present representatives of the United States and the state of Massachusetts and agents of Morris, and formally relinquished their title to all the land whose pre-emption right Morris had purchased from Massachusetts, excepting certain reservations, eleven in number, containing in all about three hundred and forty square miles. The pre-emption right to these reservations, it may be noted in passing, was afterwards sold by the Company to one David Ogden, who succeeded in extinguishing the title to all except two or three.

The Holland Company was thus in full possession of all lands in western New York lying west of the meridian line passing a few miles east of the town of Batavia, on whose site in the early days of the settlement of the purchase the Company's land office was located. Within this tract, containing over three million acres, there were, however, the Indian reservations just noted and the New York reservation along the Niagara River.

The Company enjoyed no such powers as those of the Virginia Company or the Hudson Bay Company; it was merely a land company and possessed no privileges but those to which a private individual or any other corporation similarly organized was entitled. Its object was the profitable disposal of its lands, and its life of two-score years has a historical importance only because the settlement and development of the country under its proprietorship were fostered by its enterprising and benevolent agency. Immigration and colonization were encouraged in every legitimate way. The Company's financial interest lay in the settlement of the country, and naturally determined its policy, which was the very reverse of that adopted by the Hudson Bay Company as noted in the

preceding chapter. In the former, settlement promoted what in the latter it hindered. The object of each Company was gain; in its pursuit one incidentally, if not with benevolent design, aided civilization; the other, by the bending of all efforts to its profit with evident neglect of broader interests, retarded civilization.

Immediately upon advice of the favorable issue of the Seneca council, the Holland Company began the survey of its territory, dividing it into townships six miles square, which were subdivided into sections and lots of one hundred and twenty acres each. An office was then opened and purchasers were solicited.

A handbill, put out in 1800 by the local agent, called attention to the commercial advantages which location contiguous to the great water ways of the district offered; to the well-watered plains and valleys; to the extensive timber plots of oak, hickory, ash, and walnut; to the water power which the streams afforded; and to the limestone for building. The author of the circular speaks of the situation of these lands as "more eligible, desirable, and advantageous" for the settlers than any other unsettled tract of inland country of equal magnitude in the United States. "To all those who may wish to become partakers of the growing value of the land," the circular concludes, "the Holland Land Company, whose liberality is so well known in this country, now offers such portions as they may think proper to purchase."

The response to this offer does not seem to have been prompt. At the end of 1801 the census showed only 41 settlers; at the end of 1802, 57 more; but the number increased rapidly thereafter. In 1845 the counties comprised in the original Holland Purchase had a population of about 340,000; the Company had disposed of all its lands, so far as can be learned, either to other companies and associations or to settlers. The land had surpassed in productivity and in the facilities for manufacture and commerce which it afforded, the modest estimates of its proprietors. Nowhere else, says the historian of this period, has there been in a half century so great a growth in population, and so large a development of resources and wealth, and that, too, under disadvantages in no other place exceeded.

Statistics are not at hand to verify these statements and there is not space to give il-

illustrations of the great change which came over the Genesee Country in those two decades. It must suffice to call attention to the liberal spirit manifested by the Company in its administration; it seemed always to regard the settler's interest as its own. Indeed his welfare appeared often to have first consideration. The Company opened roads, built mills, donated lands for public buildings, established depots for the delivery of grain, employed measures of relief in times of distress among the settlers, contributed liberally toward the defense of the state in the War of 1812; and in other ways showed a disposition to promote civilization as well as, and perhaps rather than, its own profit.

There are indications that the financial results of the enterprise were far from satisfactory. It is stated that in 1821, the proprietors offered to make an assignment of their interest for an amount which would cover their original payment with a moderate interest; and that in 1822 they offered to dispose of all unsold lands at four shillings per acre. While it is conjectured that the final result was better, there is ground for crediting the Holland Company with an unselfish and a beneficent part in the settlement of Western New York.

THE MASSACHUSETTS BAY COMPANY.

While gain was the chief motive in the organization of the other companies, whose history has been briefly recited in this series, the Massachusetts Bay Company, though organized nominally for purposes of trade, had as its principal object the establishment in America of a Puritan community, free from the grievous restraints of the English Church. Its charter, not unlike that of the Virginia Company and the Hudson Bay Company in the form of government it prescribed, was obtained, it appears, under representations of gainful motives, but the Company's first letter to the local council professes "the propagating of the Gospel" to be above all the aim in settling the plantation.

However, charters giving control over vast tracts of land and conveying large powers were in those days procured with apparent ease, and the political and religious liberties which the colonists under this particular charter enjoyed are no evidence of concealment of motive or duplicity but show rather absence of royal interest or concern.

The settlement, which became the founda-

tion of the Massachusetts Colony, had its origin in 1623, in the colonizing enterprise of some Dorchester merchants, aided by a few persons who had left the Plymouth Colony either from necessity or from dislike of the rigid separation there observed. The merchants abandoned the colony in 1626, but the Plymouth adventurers moved from Gloucester, the first seat of the colony, to Salem and there remained under the encouragement of promised reinforcement from Dorchester where a definite colonization movement had been set on foot by John White, who was determined that the settlement should not fail.

In 1628, and largely it seems as a result of his efforts, there arrived at Salem about sixty colonists under the leadership of John Endicott. Before the departure of these from Dorchester, the patent to a strip of land extending from three miles south of the mouth of the Charles River to three miles north of the mouth of the Merrimac River, and westward to the Pacific, had been obtained from the Plymouth Company, but in order to secure themselves in its possession, the patentees applied to the king for a charter, which was granted in the following year.

By it the administration of the affairs of the colony was committed to a governor, deputy-governor, and a number of assistants, named for the first year by the king but to be thereafter elected annually by the freemen of the Company, in whom were vested powers of legislation under the sole limitation that no laws adopted should be contrary to the laws of England. The Company was to meet in "Quarter Court" and prescribe the duties of the officers named.

After the organization of the Company a provisional government was devised for the colony itself, consisting of a governor and thirteen councilors, the governor and seven members of the council being chosen by the Company, who in turn were to choose three councilors from among the new emigrants. The remaining two were to be named by the "old planters." The government thus outlined, closely resembled that in vogue in the early days of the Virginia Colony; but the subsequent history of the former colony furnishes a counterpart to that of the latter, for while the liberties of the latter developed under the abrogation of its charter, the former converted its patent into an instrument of freedom.

The Massachusetts charter was granted in March. In September of the same year the seat of government was transferred to the colony, and that without further authority than a resolution of the Company. Those of the Company who remained in England organized themselves as a board of trade retaining only such powers as their commercial interests warranted. The government inaugurated on this side the Atlantic was in form not different from that under which the colony was begun; the members of the company—the freemen—elected the governor and his assistants and exercised the legislative powers which the charter conferred. But the increase in the number of freemen made the gatherings inconvenient, and the governor and assistants were left to attend to the duties devolving by the charter upon the whole body of freemen, the latter reserving only the power to fill vacancies in the board of assistants, the members of which were in turn to choose the governor.

This oligarchical rule, however, soon offended republican instincts and there was established a house of representatives in which two delegates from each town sat with the governor and the council, for legislative purposes. Disagreement in this body between the deputies of the people and the assistants finally led to the establishment of the bicameral* system, under which each House had the power of vetoing the action of the other. Voting by ballot was introduced, but the elective franchise was restricted to church members. It was ordered that "for the time to come, no man shall be admitted to the freedom of his body politic but such as are members of some of the churches within the limits of the same."

The church and state were thus closely linked. The Puritans had found an asylum only to shut its doors in the face of those who could not accept their doctrines. The distasteful oligarchy had sanction when established on a theocratic basis.

The need of a code of laws made itself felt under the independent government which the colony had assumed, and magistrates were appointed to make a draught in "resemblance to a Magna Charta." The result was a code which compares favorably with legislation of that date in England or in any other

country. It assured to all equal justice; made property and person inviolable; enjoined the humane treatment of brutes, and forbade cruel punishment of any sort. Church regulations were to be enforced by civil courts and "the Scriptures were to overrule any custom or prescription." Slavery was forbidden except of captives taken in war or of persons willingly selling themselves. Among the offenses punishable by death were witchcraft and treason.

The harshness with which the Puritans were treated in England greatly promoted the increase of the settlement at Salem. This colony became the center of other colonies. Small towns sprang up along the Bay and, later, inland. The fame of the Connecticut valley, brought by the Indians, attracted colonists thither, and soon the foundation of a new state was laid. Religious intolerance drove Williams to Providence and led to the settlement of Rhode Island. The same cause induced others to seek a home north of the Merrimac and thus to help in the founding of New Hampshire. Later still the colony took under its supervision the abandoned settlements of Maine.

As will be inferred, the class of colonists on Massachusetts Bay was much superior to that which a new country usually invites. They came of an excellent stock. They were educated, industrious, thrifty, God-fearing men and women. The spirit and the force of character which led them to give up their homes of comfort for the trials and perils of a new country, for the enjoyment of civil and religious liberty, have marked the history of New England. The heritage of these colonists socially and politically has been one of inestimable value in the development of American institutions.

It is impossible to enter here upon a relation of the important incidents in the life of the Massachusetts Colony under its charter, for it retained that precious instrument, in spite of the royal demands for its surrender, until the year 1685, when it was annulled by Charles the Second. The colony suffered from political and religious dissensions within and from Indian wars without. The tolerance it asked in England it refused, in self-defense, to others in its own domain, and thus it was kept in an almost constant state of religious disturbance, which shook the state as well as the church.

In 1643 it formed with the colonies of Ply-

*[Bikam'e-ral.] Consisting of two chambers or houses. The old Romans called a vault or a room *camera*.

mouth, Connecticut, and New Haven a defensive alliance against the Indian, the Dutch, and the French, under the name of "The United Colonies of New England." Each colony continued to manage its internal affairs but was subject to the direction of a commission in matters pertaining to war, the confederation existing for "amity, offense, and defense" merely.

The revocation of the charter in 1685 brought the existence of the Massachusetts

Bay Company to an end. The trading corporation which the transfer of the patent to America left on the other side of the Atlantic sank out of sight with the advancement of the colony, and probably lived through the years in name only if its life did not cease soon after the transfer. The Company as a commercial organization was little if any the richer for this enterprise; not so the world to which this Company did most to give so excellent a civilization.

(*The end.*)

STATES MADE FROM TERRITORIES.*

BY PROFESSOR JAMES ALBERT WOODBURN.

Of Indiana University.

II.

ONE reason why it became necessary in 1787 to "form a more perfect union" and to provide a new Constitution, was to give to the general government power to control the territories and to erect these territories into states. The principle which has served as the corner stone of our territorial system in the erection of states was announced, however, in a resolution of Congress in 1780:

"The lands which may be ceded to the United States by any particular state shall be disposed of for the common benefit of the United States, and be settled and formed into distinct republican states, which shall become members of the federal union and have the same rights of sovereignty, freedom, and independence as the other states."[†]

This resolution was a guarantee to the states that the lands which they were asked to cede would be guarded for the equal benefit of all; that tributary states should not be erected by any member of the Confederation, but that all should be equal members of the Union. The policy which this suggests became possible only by the adoption of the new Constitution and since that time the policy has been steadily and consistently pursued by the national government.

Since 1789 a territory has been only a rudimentary state, a politically organized community looking forward to the early enjoy-

ment of full privileges of statehood within the Union. When its people number the quota for a Congressman, the presumption is in its favor and it will come in as a state unless there are decisive objections to prevent.

The usual process in making a state out of a territory is by an "enabling act" of Congress. This enabling act, after the territory has been organized, its boundaries described, the qualifications for its voters prescribed, and the usual forms of civil government provided, enables the people of the territory through a representative convention to adopt a constitution for ratification at a territorial election, to be submitted for the acceptance of Congress. The enabling act usually imposes certain general conditions such as requiring the proposed state constitution to be in harmony with the Constitution of the United States, to provide a republican form of government, and to protect the rights of property. In most cases these acts have reserved for the state certain public lands for the support of schools and colleges.

When the voters of the territory have accepted the constitution so formed, and Congress has given its sanction, the territory is transformed into a state and proceeds to send senators and representatives to Congress.

Of all the forty-four states four were formed out of territory belonging to other states, Vermont, Kentucky, Maine, and West Virginia; Texas was annexed and California came in immediately upon the recognition of our Mexican conquest without waiting to be organized as a territory, and the remaining

*Special Course for C. I., S. C. Graduates.

[†]Journals of Congress, III., 535.

twenty-five have come to statehood in the usual way.

It is the purpose of this article to review some of the historical discussions and events of especial interest in connection with the admission of some of these states.

The first interesting case is that of Louisiana. The admission of states from territories which belonged to the Union in 1789 raised no questions for dispute. Vermont, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Ohio came in without trouble. But Louisiana had never been within the contemplation of the Constitution. It was foreign territory in 1789, and whether Congress could buy it, in the first place, or admit any part of it as a state of the Union, in the second place, were questions of very serious moment at the time.

It is well known that constitutional objection was made to the purchase of Louisiana, and that Jefferson violated his own principle in constitutional construction in making the purchase. He had been the great leader in opposition to "implied powers" and to a broad construction of that "sweeping clause" of the Constitution which asserts that Congress shall have power to do all things which shall be "necessary and proper to the execution of the foregoing powers"; and he had laid down the doctrine that whatever powers were not clearly delegated in the Constitution were retained to the states; that "words subsidiary to the execution of limited powers ought not to be so construed as to give unlimited powers."

In adherence to that doctrine Jefferson himself believed that he had no power to purchase Louisiana. But in the emergency and for evident public reasons he took a view of his public duty broad enough and wise enough to lead him beyond this narrow construction of his presidential powers. He made the purchase, trusting to the people to ratify his act by a constitutional amendment, and thus the "great statesman laid broad and deep the foundations of the future greatness and glory of his country."^{*}

Happily larger views of the Constitution than Jefferson's had dominated Washington in his administration and were now coming into general public acceptance; no amendment was ever passed to atone for Jefferson's imaginary transgression, and it was allowed

that powers inherent in sovereignty, not expressly reserved to the states (among which was that of acquiring territory), were vested in the national government.

But more interesting for our purpose was the denial that, while the nation might constitutionally acquire territory it might erect none of it into a new commonwealth for admission to the Union.

By this time, 1803, the Federalists had been turned into a party of opposition and, therefore, into a party of strict construction. Those Federalists who still stood for old-time Federalism and broad construction admitted that the United States might acquire territory either by purchase or conquest; but they generally asserted that neither conquest nor purchase gave power to incorporate the new territory into the Union. We might, under the Constitution, acquire the rest of North America, but, if we should, we would need to govern it as a territorial empire. We could hold and govern these foreign lands as colonies; we could not assimilate them as states.

The men who urged this view objected especially to the third article of the treaty with France by which we acquired Louisiana. This article provided:

"The inhabitants of the ceded territory shall be incorporated into the Union of the United States and admitted as soon as possible, according to the principles of the Federal Constitution, to the enjoyment of all the rights, advantages, and immunities of citizens of the United States and, in the mean time, they shall be maintained in the free enjoyment of their liberty and property and the religion they profess."

This looked as if the Executive Department were admitting a state, or agreeing to do so, an act which was clearly a function of Congress. But could Congress itself make such an agreement, it was asserted that only the states themselves could authorize such incorporation.

Mr. Pickering of Massachusetts thought that the assent of each individual state was necessary to the admission of a "foreign country," as in a commercial house the consent of each member should be necessary to admit a new partner.

Mr. White said in the Senate: "It is important that we should have New Orleans, but as to Louisiana, it cannot be incorporated into the Union without altering the Con-

^{*} Blaine's Twenty Years of Congress, Vol. I.

stitution, and it will be the greatest curse that can befall us."

Mr. Plumer of New Hampshire said: "Admit this western world into the Union and you destroy at once the weight and importance of the eastern states and compel them to establish a separate and independent empire."

Griswold of Connecticut asserted that, "The vast unmanageable extent of territory in Louisiana, the distribution of the balance so important to maintain, threatens the subversion of the Union."

This debate, of which Mr. Henry Adams says no other "ever took place in the Capitol which better deserved recollection,"* has important historic significance and suggestion.

In the first place it reminds us how limited in the ideas of the men of that time were the future possibilities of the Republic.

Josiah Quincy, one of the ablest members of the House of Representatives, in resisting the proposition to admit Louisiana, looked upon it as a measure so violently unconstitutional as to justify secession or revolution. To him the new purchase was a distant foreign country and the idea of crossing the Mississippi for new states was an "ambition without limits," like "wandering after new settlements to the very ends of the earth." Already in his mind the country was too large for the operation of republican government. The experiment had not yet been seen in the world, of an American commonwealth exercising national power over an imperial region while preserving republican liberty within the states.

The political equilibrium which it then seemed so important to preserve was that of the East and the Northeast against the West and the Southwest. Experience has shown that our political divisions have never been along these lines. The states which have been made from territories could, if they should combine, control all departments of the government against the Original Thirteen. But the jealous fears of that day, that the new sections would be arrayed against the old, have proven altogether groundless; while the possible and successful extent of republican government under central direction has surpassed the most extravagant anticipations of the men of that day.

In the second place, this debate and its results went far in establishing beyond recall the doctrine of implied powers, the great principle that the government must be allowed to derive substantial powers from just and liberal implication; that since the government had been formed for accomplishing a certain end, any proper or usual means of accomplishing that end might be resorted to.

When Hamilton announced this doctrine in his written opinion to Washington in support of the scheme for the First United States Bank, in 1791, the party of Jefferson and Madison opposed it as liable to lead to dangerous assumptions of power. These great leaders came too near to the narrow dogma that all powers not literally delegated to the national government were retained to the states. The Constitution contained no expression, in so many words, of a power to grant articles of incorporation, as the bill for the Bank proposed to do, and these leaders held that such a power might not be derived by implication from some other power.

Now, in 1803 this party and its leaders had become the party of the administration. Jefferson the administrator was not quite like Jefferson the constitutional theorist. His party found it necessary to make use of the principle of implication in buying and admitting Louisiana. Strict construction had been deserted by strict constructionists. It seems strange to us at this day, that earnest men should so long and so seriously debate whether the United States government might merely possess Louisiana as a colony, or whether it had constitutional power to admit it as a state. That question in itself was not of any serious importance. But it was very important to know what both parties then for the first time admitted that the "new government was able to govern."

The second case of special interest in the making of a state from a territory arose in the case of Missouri. The main facts in the controversy which arose upon the application of Missouri for statehood are pretty well known. She was allowed to come in as a slave state with a prohibition against any more slave states from the Louisiana purchase north of Missouri's southern boundary, the parallel of 36° 30'.

No evidence appears that any concerted effort was made before 1820 to preserve an equilibrium of power between the slave and the free states. Yet a glance at the order in

* History of the U. S., Vol. II., Chap. X.

which the states were admitted before that date would seem to indicate that such equilibrium of power between the North and the South was a natural public expectation. By general agreement, after the ordinance of 1787, the Ohio River became the boundary between the slave states and the free.

In 1789 there were six slave states and seven free states, or seven quite sure to be free within a generation, although gradual emancipation had not yet entirely eliminated slavery in the northern states. Between 1789 and 1820, states were admitted as follows :

<i>Free.</i>	<i>Slave.</i>
Vermont, 1791.	Kentucky, 1792.
Ohio, 1802.	Tennessee, 1796.
Indiana, 1816.	Louisiana, 1812.
Illinois, 1818.	Mississippi, 1817.
	Alabama, 1819.

Five slave states had been admitted and four free, and they had followed each other in the order of slave and free practically in alternate succession. With eleven slave states and eleven free, Missouri applied for admission. The free soil men contended that she ought to come in free to balance Alabama, just admitted. The country was thrown into the fury of a slavery debate and for the first time there was recognized by law that which seems naturally to have grown up, but which should by all means have been obliterated,—a geographical line which divided the people of America into two sections. The legal recognition of this line may have been merely the record of an existing fact, but itself did much toward arraying against each other the North and the South.

Jefferson gifted with prophetic vision said : "A geographical line, coinciding with a principle, moral and political, once conceived and held up to the angry passions of men, will never be obliterated, and every new irritation will mark it deeper and deeper."

The second state made from the new territory had brought before the nation a matter of even more serious moment than had the first. Louisiana and Missouri were indeed test cases, and acts and decisions in their admission form important precedents.

In the Missouri struggle also arose, for the first time under the Constitution, in a serious way, the question as to the control of slavery in the territories. The great question at the time in this connection, seemed to be, "Shall Missouri come in as a slave state?"

In the long run this question sinks into

minor significance. The matter of chief interest in the Missouri struggle was not whether Missouri should be added to the column of slave states in preserving the so-called equilibrium of power. But far the greater question, a question which was at the heart of the great historic controversy on slavery of which the Missouri struggle was but a chapter and an episode, was, "Has Congress the power to control slavery in the territories?"

This was the ever-present and dominant question in American politics, in the erection and admission of states, during the generation between 1820 and 1861. It was this question which broke up old conditions, shaped the course of events for a generation, annihilated old political parties and created new. To enter fully into its merits would be to understand the nature of the anti-slavery restriction in the ordinance of 1787, the Missouri struggle of 1820, much of the Texas controversy, much of the discussion on the Compromises of 1850, the repeal of the Missouri Compromise in 1854, the origin and early history of the Republican party, and the constitutional deliverance in the Dred Scott decision in 1857. In short it would be to bring before the mind the greatest political struggle in American history, a struggle which, as Lincoln defined it, was nothing less than the struggle to determine whether the nation should become all slave or all free.

The words which have made the ordinance of 1787 so famous, are those words which forever consecrated the Northwest to free soil :

"There shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in said territory, otherwise than in the punishment of crimes whereof the party shall have been duly convicted."

These are historic words. At four subsequent times in American history they have been the subject of deepest controversy. These controversies have erected four prominent landmarks in our political history :

1. In 1820, in the Missouri Compromise the famous prohibition was applied to that part of the Louisiana purchase north of 36° 30'.

2. In 1846-48, in the Wilmot Proviso the attempt was made to apply it to the territory which might be obtained from Mexico.

3. In 1854, in the repeal of the Missouri Compromise, the prohibition was abandoned and it was allowed that states might be erected out of territories with or without

slavery as the people of the territories should choose.

4. In 1865 the words were incorporated into the National Constitution forming the language of the Thirteenth Amendment.

In these great epochs of controversy before the war the only matter of general public interest in the process of making new states was, "What was the power and what should be the policy of Congress in controlling slavery in the territories?"

When Texas came in, in 1845, it was understood that it would be a slave state, for slavery was already established there by local law. When Iowa was organized as a territory in 1838, and Minnesota in 1849, the laws of the United States were extended over them "so far as may be applicable." The restriction of the Missouri Compromise was "applicable," since these prospective states were in North Louisiana, and it was therefore considered that slavery was barred from these territories.

In the case of Oregon, the dispute as to its ownership delayed its organization as a territory. When that dispute was settled in 1846 by the agreement with England, the doubt as to whether Oregon was originally a part of the Louisiana purchase, and therefore under the operation of the Missouri Compromise made necessary a special restriction. This was secured when Oregon was organized in 1848, at which time an unsuccessful attempt was made to extend the Missouri Compromise line to the Pacific Ocean. Oregon received the privileges of the ordinance of 1787 and became a free state.

California without opportunity for terri-

torial organization, came in as a free state in the Compromises of 1850.

In the same compromises the territories of New Mexico and Arizona were organized without restriction as to slavery, with a probable intention of recognizing the subsequently famous doctrine of "non-intervention," or "popular sovereignty," i. e. that the domestic institutions of a territory might be determined by its inhabitants without interference by Congress.

After these compromises and under the operation of the principle of "non-intervention" the status of slavery in the territories was continually a matter of dispute until the slavery controversy was settled forever. At what point in the history of a territory a territorial legislature could establish or prohibit slavery, or whether this legislature or Congress itself could prohibit the "peculiar institution" at all and thus interfere with the rights of property,—these were the chief questions in American politics attracting the attention of the country between 1850 and 1860; the questions which drew into the combatant arena men like Lincoln and Douglas and which have given us our greatest heroics in the history of political debate.

In 1854 by the Kansas-Nebraska Bill, which repealed the Missouri Compromise and which, judged by its consequences, must be deemed the most momentous legislative act in American history, these questions became open ones in all the territory of the Union. Then, in the process of making new states, began the struggle for Kansas, the bravest and most inspiring struggle for free soil which any commonwealth has ever endured.

(The end.)

SUNDAY READINGS.

SELECTED BY BISHOP VINCENT.

[February 7.]

But I would not have you to be ignorant, brethren, concerning them which are asleep, that ye sorrow not.—1 Thess., IV., 13.

HEAR Paul this day proclaiming, "I would not have you to be ignorant concerning them which are asleep, that ye sorrow not even as others which have no hope." The parable of Lazarus is the evangelical chord; this passage is the apos-

tolitic note. And there is concord between them; for we have much in that parable concerning the resurrection and the future judgment, and, though it is on apostolic ground we are now toiling, we shall here find the same treasure. For the parable teaches that we should regard all the splendors of the present life as nothing, but should look forward in our hopes, and daily reflect on the decisions which will be hereafter pronounced,

and on that fearful judgment, and that Judge who cannot be deceived. On these things Paul has counseled us in preceding passages. Attend now, however, to these words, "I would not have you to be ignorant, brethren, concerning them which are asleep, that ye sorrow not, even as others which have no hope. For if we believe that Jesus died and rose again, even so them also which sleep in Jesus will God bring with Him."

We ought here, at the outset, to inquire why, when he is speaking concerning Christ, he employs the word *death*; but when he is speaking of our decease, he calls it *sleep* and not *death*. For he did not say, "Concerning them that are dead," but what did he say? "Concerning them that are asleep." And again, "Even so them also which sleep in Jesus will God bring with Him." He did not say, "Them that have died." Still again, "We who are alive and remain unto the coming of the Lord shall not go before them that sleep." Here, too, he did not say, "Them that are dead"; but a third time, bringing the subject to their remembrance, he for the third time called death a sleep.

Concerning Christ, however, he did not speak thus; but how? "For if we believe that Jesus *died*." He did not say Jesus slept, but He died. Why now did he use the term *death* in reference to Christ, but in reference to us the term *sleep*? For it was not casually or negligently that he employed this expression, but he had a wise and great purpose in so doing.

In speaking of Christ, he said *death*, so as to confirm the fact that Christ had actually suffered death; in speaking of us, he says *sleep*, in order to impart consolation. For where a resurrection had already taken place, he mentions death with plainness; but where the resurrection is still a matter of hope, he says sleep, consoling us by this very expression, and cherishing our valuable hopes. For he who is asleep will surely awake; and death is no more than a long sleep.

[February 14.]

Say not, a dead man hears not nor speaks nor sees nor is conscious. It is just so with a sleeping person. If I may speak somewhat paradoxically, even the soul of a sleeping person is in some sort asleep; but not so the soul of a dead man; that is awake.

But, you say, a dead man experiences cor-

ruption and becomes dust and ashes. And what then, beloved? For this very reason we ought to rejoice. For when a man is about to rebuild an old and tottering house, he first sends out its occupants, then tears it down, and builds anew a more splendid one. This occasions no grief to the occupants, but rather joy; for they do not think of the demolition which they see, but of the house which is to come, though not yet seen.

When God is about to do a similar work, He destroys our body and removes the soul which was dwelling in it, as from some house, that He may build it anew and more splendidly, and again brings the soul into it with greater glory. Let us not, therefore, regard the tearing down, but the splendor which is to succeed.

If, again, a man has a statue decayed by rust and age, and mutilated in many of its parts, he breaks it up and casts it into a furnace, and after the melting he receives it again in a more beautiful form. As then the dissolving in the furnace was not a destruction but a renewing of the statue, so the death of our bodies is not a destruction but a renovation. When, therefore, you see as in a furnace our flesh flowing away to corruption, dwell not on that sight, but wait for the recasting.

And be not satisfied with the extent of this illustration, but advance in your thoughts to a still higher point; for the statuary, casting into the fire a brazen image, does not furnish you in its place a golden and undecaying statue, but again makes a brazen one. God does not thus; but casting in a mortal body formed of clay, He returns to you a golden and immortal statue; for the earth, receiving a corruptible and decaying body, gives back the same, incorruptible and undecaying.

Look not, therefore, on the corpse, lying with closed eyes and speechless lips, but on the man that is risen, that has received glory unspeakable and amazing, and direct your thoughts from the present sight to the future hope.

But do you miss his society, and therefore lament and mourn? Now is it not unreasonable, that, if you should have given your daughter in marriage, and her husband should take her to a distant country and should there enjoy prosperity, you would not think the circumstance a calamity, but the intelligence of their prosperity would console the sorrow occasioned by her absence;

and yet here, while it is not a man nor a fellow servant, but the Lord Himself who has taken your relative, that you should grieve and lament?

And how is it possible, you ask, not to grieve, since I am only a man? Nor do I say that you should not grieve; I do not condemn dejection, but the intensity of it. To be dejected is natural; but to be overcome by dejection is madness and folly and unmanly weakness. You may grieve and weep; but give not away to despondency nor indulge in complaints. If you sink under depression, you withhold honor from the departed, you displease God, who has taken him, and you injure yourself; but if you are grateful, you pay respect to him, you glorify God, and you benefit yourself. Weep, as wept your Master over Lazarus, observing the just limits of sorrow, which it is not proper to pass.

[February 21.]

Thus also said Paul, "I would not have you to be ignorant concerning them which are asleep, that ye sorrow not as others who have no hope." Grieve, says he; but not as the Greek, who has no hope of a resurrection, who despairs of a future life. Believe me, I am ashamed and blush to see unbecoming groups of women pass along the mart, tearing their hair, cutting their arms and cheeks, and all this under the eyes of the Greeks.

What will they not utter concerning us? Are these the men who philosophize about a resurrection? Indeed! How poorly their actions agree with their opinions! In words they philosophize about a resurrection: but they act just like those who do not acknowledge a resurrection. If they fully believed in a resurrection, they would not act thus; but if they had really persuaded themselves that a deceased friend had departed to a better state, they would not thus mourn. These things, and more than these, the unbelievers say when they hear those lamentations. Let us then be ashamed, and be more moderate, and not occasion so much harm to ourselves and to those who are looking on us.

For on what account, tell me, do you thus weep for one departed? Because he was a bad man? You ought on that very account to be thankful, since the occasions of wickedness are now cut off. Because he was good and kind? If so, you ought to rejoice; since he has been soon revoked before wickedness had corrupted him, and he has gone to a

world where he stands ever secure and there is no room even to mistrust a change. Because he was a youth? For that, too, praise Him, because He has speedily called him to a better lot. Because he was an aged man? On this account, also, give thanks and glorify Him that He has taken him.

Be ashamed of your manner of burial. The singing of psalms, the prayers, the assembling of the (spiritual) fathers and brethren—all this is not that you may weep and lament and afflict yourselves, but that you may render thanks to Him who has taken the departed. For as when men are called to some high office, multitudes with praises on their lips assemble to escort them at their departure to their stations, so do all with abundant praise join to send forward, as to greater honor, those of the pious who have departed.

Death is rest, a deliverance from the exhausting labors and cares of this world. When, then, thou seest a relative departing, yield not to despondency; give thyself to reflection; examine thy conscience; cherish the thought that after a while this end awaits thee also. Be more considerate; let another's death excite thee to salutary fear; shake off all indolence; examine your past deeds, and commence a happy change.

[February 28.]

We differ from unbelievers in our estimate of things. The unbeliever surveys the heaven and worships it, because he thinks it divinity; he looks to the earth and makes himself a servant to it, and longs for the things of sense. But not so with us. We survey the heaven and admire Him that made it; for we believe it not to be a god, but a work of God. I look on the whole creation and am led by it to the Creator. He looks on wealth and longs for it with earnest desire; I look on wealth and condemn it. I see things in one light; he in another. Just so in regard to death. He sees a corpse and thinks of it as a corpse; I see a corpse and behold sleep rather than death.

And as in regard to books, all persons see them with the same eye, but not with the same understanding—for to the unlearned the mere shapes of letters appear while the learned discover the sense that lies within those letters—so in respect to affairs in general, we all see what takes place with the same eyes, but not with the same understanding and judgment. Since, therefore, in all other things we differ

from them, shall we agree with them in our sentiments respecting death?

Consider to whom the departed has gone, and take comfort. He has gone where Paul is, and Peter, and the whole company of the saints. Consider how he shall arise, with what glory and splendor. Consider that by mourning and lamenting thou canst not alter the event which has occurred, and that thou wilt in the end injure thyself. Consider whom you imitate by so doing, and shun the companionship in crime.

For whom do you imitate and emulate? The unbelieving, those who have no hope; as Paul has said, "That ye sorrow not, even as others who have no hope." And observe how carefully he expresses himself; for he does not say, "Those who have not the hope of a resurrection," but simply, "Those who have no hope." He that has no hope of a future retribution has no hope at all, nor does he know that there is a God, nor that God exercises a providential care over present occurrences, nor that divine justice looks on all things.

But he that is thus ignorant and inconsiderate is more unwise than a beast, and separates his soul from all good; for he that does not expect to render an account of his deeds, cuts himself loose from all virtue, and attaches himself to all vice.

Considering these things, therefore, and reflecting on the folly and stupidity of the heathen, whose associates we become by our lamentations for the dead, let us avoid this conformity to them. For the apostle mentions them for this very purpose, that by considering the dishonor into which thou fallest,

thou mightest recover thyself from this conformity, and return to thy proper dignity.

And not only here, but everywhere and frequently, the blessed Paul does the same. For when he would dissuade from sins, he shows with whom we become associated by our sins, that, being touched by the character of the persons, thou shouldst avoid such companionship. To the Thessalonians, accordingly, he says, "Let every one keep his own body in sanctification and honor, not in the lust of concupiscence, even as the Gentiles who know not God." And again, "Walk not as the other Gentiles in the vanity of their mind." Thus also here, "I would not have you to be ignorant, brethren, concerning them which are asleep, that ye sorrow not as others who have no hope." For it is not the nature of things, but our own disposition, which makes us grieve; not the death of the departed, but the weakness of those who mourn.—*Chrysostom*.*

* "John, called for the last twelve centuries *Chrysostom* (golden mouthed), was the brightest ornament of the ancient Greek churches. He was probably born about the year 347 at Antioch, in Syria, where he spent most of his public life. Distinguished as a scholar he was also early pious; and, entering the ministry, began to preach at the age of thirty-one. He was made patriarch of Constantinople in 398. But his preaching was too pungent and his life and discipline too strict for that corrupt metropolis; and, incurring the displeasure of the empress, the lax clergy, and many of the courtiers, he was deposed and banished. Though returned for a brief period at the tumultuous call of the people, he was soon again forcibly removed to Colchis, but died on the road thither, the 14th of September, 407, with his favorite expression on his lips, 'God be praised for everything.' For overpowering popular eloquence, Chrysostom had no equal among the fathers. He has been called the Homer of orators."—*Dr. H. C. Fish*.

PHYSICAL CULTURE.

BY J. M. BUCKLEY, LL.D.

I.

PHYSICAL culture signifies trained exercise under proper conditions and in due proportion. In the absence of higher reason and conscious volition, animals are thus cultivated by wills and understandings other than their own. Without such external influences, what change is made in them is the result of instinct, unconscious imitation, and reflex action. Children are at first trained like animals; but from an

early period the methods employed and the ends sought are explained to them. Thus they become capable of perfecting culture by the exercise of their powers, directed by their own wills, upon their bodies; nor will they long obey rules whose philosophy they do not understand, and of the utility of which they are ignorant. Practical rules, therefore, must rest upon theory, and theory upon nature, and nature is ascertained by observation and experience. In this as in other

matters, the lessons of experience are derived from the benefits of right, and the evil consequences of wrong, conduct.

Wherein lies the necessity of exercise, and what desirable acquisitions depend upon it? Exercise is necessary to growth and to harmonious development, to strength, and to the facile use of the powers of the body, which implies grace in motion, and to health and longevity.

The relation of exercise to growth is self-evident. One needs only to observe children who from any cause are prevented the free action of their muscles. Here and there an exception may appear, but the rule is almost universal that without exercise children do not attain their full height, breadth, or circumference; and this is true not only of the trunk, but of the arms and legs, and of every toe and finger. The spectacle presented by children born of very robust parents and confined in small unventilated rooms, is one of the most incongruous. Nature's efforts to expand and mold the form are counteracted apparently by some mysterious force, until the word "stunted" has come to be applied to such unfortunate children, who abound in most populous cities.

If from any cause habitual action of one set of muscles or of one member of the body is required, while the rest are kept in a state of enforced idleness, those so employed become fully as large as the normal size, and even much larger, others being proportionately diminished. Thus in the same person are illustrated the benefits of exercise and the evils resulting from the want of it.

As muscles are organs of power, and power depends upon change, and change upon circulation, and as the action and interaction of the muscles upon the bony structure of the body are constant, permanent strength to be exerted at will is impossible in the absence of regular exercise. Latent strength, which always exists in excess of what the will can command, may indeed under great excitement be brought into use where no exercise has been taken for years, but only for short periods; and the unusual effort is followed by painful and sometimes fatal reactions and derangements. Athletes* teach us this if,

when not in training, they attempt competitive feats with powerful opponents in the prize ring, the regatta,* swimming match, pedestrian tournament, baseball, football, cricket, or polo.† Men who had been for a long time in constant exercise, have by a single year's neglect lost both skill and strength, and fallen an easy prey to those whom they had counted unworthy to compete with them a little while before.

Adaptive facility is often as important as vigor. A miller of moderate strength can handle with ease and load upon a wagon barrels and bags of flour; while a blacksmith whose right arm is stronger than both of the miller's, might be greatly fatigued with the same work; but not more so than the miller would be should he attempt to take the blacksmith's place.

Facility and grace are so closely related that what is done easily is usually done gracefully. Grace in movement is of importance because of the social relations in which mankind exists. If, like the grizzly bear, the human species lived in the recesses of forests, each rarely meeting any of his own kind except his mate and cubs, and then only for war, the poetry of motion might give place to strength of grasp and of teeth. But whether it be on the platform or in the parlor, in the street or shop, on the back of a horse or walking along the highway, a graceful manner is a means of pleasure to the man and to those who observe him, and often leads to promotion and to increase of personal power.

Had no physiologist scientifically studied the subject and pointed out these facts, the world would have seen them; for from the earliest times the relation of exercise to health and strength has been emphasized by practical philosophers.

The sum of what the scientists have confirmed by a variety of ingenious experiments is that muscular exercise greatly increases the quantity of air taken into the lungs, and in the same proportion the amount of carbonic acid expired. Dr. Edward Smith takes the recumbent position as a unit of measurement to express the amount of air inspired, and says that sitting it is 1.18; standing

*In Greece almost the same word was used as the name of a contestant in the games, *athlos* being the word for contest and *athlos* the name for the prize won in it. In time the word came to be applied to any one "trained in exercises of agility and strength."

*[Re-gât'ti.] The Italian word for boat race. It was originally used only of a gondola race in Venice, but is now applied to any race in which two or more boats take part, contesting for a prize.

†A game of ball played on horseback.

1.33, singing 1.26; walking one mile per hour 1.9; two miles 2.76; three miles 3.22; four miles 5. He shows further that if a person walks one mile per hour and carries 34 pounds it is 3.5; and carrying 118 pounds, 4.75.

Dr. Parkes from these and other experiments concludes that muscular exercise is necessary to eliminate carbon from the body. He shows that deficient exercise tends to weaken the heart's action. Excellent results flow from the increase of perspiration, and with augmented strength "digestion waits on appetite and health on both." By the records of the British Army in all countries Dr. Parkes shows how deficient exercise lessens both appetite and digestive power.

That subtle force called life manifests itself in various ways, which are so uniform under the same conditions as to constitute many of the most reliable of the "laws of nature." If the right arm be used constantly the muscles increase in size, become hardened, capable of great exertion, and of an endurance which no arm not so used can sustain; and this acquired capability continues almost to the close of life. A metal worker dying of pulmonary consumption said to his physician, "How strange it is! I cannot lift my head nor move my foot nor straighten my left arm; but with my right"—and then he slowly extended his arm—"I can lift quite a heavy weight." The spectacle of the arm, denuded of every atom of fat, as the muscle rose and fell, was a startling physiological phenomenon.

The legs of the professional rower are small and weak, while the muscles of his back and arms are unnaturally large. Where exercise is not in excess the vigor of the whole frame is proportionately increased, nor are the effects of exercise upon development confined to the muscles employed. Dr. Ferdinand Lagrange, in his "Physiology of Bodily Exercise" illustrates this fact in a striking manner:

"'When I had my two legs,' said a Zouave* from whom they had been cut off, 'I used to

*[Zwāw or zowāw.] "A body of French infantry, deriving their name from a tribe of Kabyles in Algeria, whose fighting men have been noted throughout North Africa for generations. After the occupation of Algiers in 1830, a body of these mercenary troops in the service of the dey were incorporated into the French army, with French officers, discipline, and arms. Frenchmen were also distributed among the companies as private soldiers, but the Arab dress was retained. . . . After 1840 the Zouaves were simply European troops uniformed as Arabs."

give a splendid blow with my fist!" And the Zouave was right. A well delivered blow with the fist is supported by the whole body. The effort which thrusts forward the closed hand begins in the leg which is extended, and then involves the thigh which projects the trunk in the direction in which the blow is delivered; the muscles of the loins transmit the movement to the thorax, and those of the thorax pass it on to the shoulder, which in its turn thrusts forward the forearm and the fist, transmitting to them the force to which the whole body has contributed. In this manner every muscular movement may have an influence at a point very far distant from that to which it seems to be localized. Hence an exercise sometimes produces very marked effects in a region of the body in which we should not have dreamed of looking for them."

He also declares that the formula which expresses the effect of exercise is *ubi stimulus, ibi fluxus*, which he paraphrases in English: "Every organ in activity draws toward it a greater quantity of nutritious fluid than it does when in a state of repose." Hence every exercise not excessive benefits the part of the body which is employed, and also the whole system. Undue exercise of any part may rob others, and excessive exercise of the whole body will greatly injure the constitution. From these principles some important practical conclusions are to be drawn.

The natural sports and play of children not shut up in schoolrooms are in harmony with nature, sufficient for their wants, and need only to be guarded against excess. But as children are not intended to be merely well-developed animals, graceful and strong, they must be taught. They cannot be instructed separately except in a few instances, and to this there are serious social and intellectual objections; hence they must be collected in rooms. Recesses and intermissions of various kinds are necessary, and any system which disregards them is a foe to good health and in the end to mental as well as physical strength. Arrangements must be made for exercise indoors; and to this music and rhythm are indispensable and when properly blended with physical exercise may promote both strength and grace.

It is desirable that boys and girls should retain the love of the sports and plays of childhood as long as possible. The premature introduction of girls to society with its

unhygienic* dress and hours, stiffness of motion, and unnaturalness of attitude; and the dressing of boys as young men, and the requiring in them a false dignity and effeminacy, the one not befitting their age and the other incompatible with preparation for the duties of citizenship, is an evil too serious to be regarded with unconcern.

Though willful waste should be checked, parents and teachers who are ready to rebuke their children for activity, energy, and noise, who are continually looking for spots of dirt upon their clothes, chastising them for every rent, and always deploring the rapid wearing out of clothes, may mean well but are lamentably ignorant.

The life of towns and cities is artificial, and it is a study of the first importance to find exercise for children, healthful, free from immoral associations, and in which they will find pleasure. Sons and daughters of farmers in moderate circumstances, and of laboring people have exercise enough for growth and strength, but those of other classes must invent it.

The mere fact of living, if it be done hygienically, implies considerable exercise. Breathing, digesting, sitting, maintaining the body in an erect posture, and every motion voluntary or involuntary involve effort. This should be remembered in devising a plan. Unfortunately, however, proper breathing—which children loosely dressed take to as naturally as web-footed birds to the water—soon becomes a lost art. Habits of sitting, standing, and walking are formed, which, though not at once fatal, are pernicious to health and sooner or later render life a painful struggle.

Most trades and professions in the competition of modern life require artificial modes of action in excess. Jewelers, tailors, and shoemakers sit all day in confined positions bending to their work. Lawyers, journalists, and ministers spend many hours in constrained positions at the desk. Teachers are for long periods in illy ventilated, crowded rooms; their profession is taxing to the nervous system, but, since the abolition of corporal punishment, does not involve much muscular exercise.

A physician in general practice who visits his patients from house to house, may have

a happy combination of the physical and the intellectual, which goes far to counteract the unwholesome effect of hours spent in the sick room.⁶ But the specialist whose patients come to his office, and the dentist, need regular exercise in the open air. The minister who faithfully performs his pastoral work has a similar advantage to that enjoyed by the general medical practitioner in his mode of life.

The variety and the delays in the legal profession afford opportunities for exercise which strengthen lawyers for the tremendous strain involved in a long term at court. Judges who spend their lives in strained, sedentary positions, breathing bad air, either powerfully excited by the case before them or consumed with *ennui* by its dullness, with the necessity of night reading and study while preparing their opinions, live in a manner unfavorable to health.

Carpenters, painters, and butchers have a sufficient variety to require no attention to exercise as a specialty. But wherever a trade or profession involves confinement to one position or the continuous use of particular muscles, or requires an indoor life chiefly, exercise is vitally important to counteract the effects of excess and prevent the rise of weaknesses and maladies usually so insidious as to be almost beyond remedy when first noticed by the victim.

Nevertheless, the reparation which nature may make when assisted by properly arranged exercise is so great that no one, the decay of whose body has not proceeded far enough to make death certain in the near future, need ever dismiss hope.

The best brief description of the effect of exercise in strengthening those parts of the body which are abnormally weak has been given incidentally by Lord Bacon, who says:

"The studies pass into the manners. Nay, there is no stond or impediment of the wit but may be wrought out by fit studies, like as diseases of the body may have appropriate exercises. Bowling is good for the reins; shooting for the lungs and breast; gentle walking for the stomach; riding for the head and the like."

The writer at an early period found it necessary to study the philosophy of exercise as one of the chief means of preserving life and of gaining strength and endurance for sustained exertion; and after much inquiry and experience discovered that he had learned chiefly what was known to the ancients.

*[Un-hi-gi-en'ik.] Unhealthful; Hygieia [hi-jē'yä] in Greek mythology was the goddess of health; she was the daughter of Æsculapius, the god of medicine.

Exercise is the best, and where it has not already been used in excess, the only natural remedy for insomnia*; for fatigue and sleep are cause and effect. So true is this that the effect of errors in diet can be overcome by it. Solomon observed that, "The sleep of the laboring man is sweet, whether he eat little or much: but the abundance of the rich will not suffer him to sleep."

Exercise is a means of securing mental rest without sleep. The difficulty of the enthusiastic student is not how to think, but how to cease from thought. The brain, weakened by excessive use in the departments where intellection is performed and where the deeper emotions produce their effects by stimulating the ideas, and in those regions which are affected by powerful sensations of light, sound, and touch, retains an irritability fatal to sleep. It diverts the energy necessary to digestion, is destructive to health, and inducing an inactivity of the muscular system causes its decay through innutrition. If not checked the morbid excitement tends to melancholia or to mania or to some of those singular impairments of the brain and nervous system, of which *aphasia*† is an example, and a general loss of memory and of the power of concentration are symptoms.

Lagrange and others have proved that the brain is concerned in muscular action; nevertheless we know that some actions are automatic, and that others require continual use of the intelligence. It is also known that actions at first requiring much pains and fatiguing attention, afterwards become automatic.

Two kinds of exercise will divert the mind from itself and from predominating ideas. The automatic, when they are carried so far that the blood is drawn in such quantities from the brain to the muscles as to make consecutive thought impossible or to reduce it greatly; and actions requiring will and attention. None but a practiced pedestrian can walk a third or a half faster than his natural easy gait, and at the same time continue a difficult train of thought. Nor can any strong emotion continue to flow while he takes such ex-

ercise: either the emotion will stop the exercise or the exercise reduce the emotion.

Muscular exercises requiring attention and will involve the action of the brain; but, as the mind cannot be conscious of two radically distinct states and the will cannot be applied to the doing of two radically distinct things at the same time, such exercise must divert attention from that subject which has produced or stimulates the abnormal excitement. The carpenter may use the mallet and chisel or the hammer and nail, and be thinking of other things; but the amateur carpenter will be recalled by blows upon his fingers or by something still more to be dreaded, the moment he forgets what he is doing. Hence exercise is the best remedy for any abnormal mental excitement which has become or threatens to become chronic; and, the cause being removed, the consequences cease.

Of course, for a person whose brain is weary to take up vigorous mental exercise is not so beneficial as to rest for a while before the exercise, provided he can rest; but if not, then the less of two evils is to enter at once upon some form of exercise which either in amount or character of effort makes it impossible for the mind to illustrate the proverb, "Give a mill nothing else to grind and it will grind flint."

From these principles and facts it follows that exercise can be relied upon to remedy many of the diseases of modern civilization. Sometimes remedies are advertised which require "no change of diet." Most of these nostrums are delusions. They may give temporary relief without a change of diet (often at the expense of serious injury to the system) but the course which brought on the disease will cause it to return after the remedy is discontinued. If there be any prescription which justifies the statement, "No change of diet required," it is that of a proper amount and kind of exercise.

Some persons fancy that exercise is not needed after middle life. It is more rather than less necessary then than at any other period. If we lived according to nature, eating only when we have a natural appetite, and only sufficient to support us, comparatively little exercise might be necessary after middle life. But in our civilization artificial appetites are created by the variety of viands and of cooking; hence, many persons no longer young eat too much, more eat too much and too rapidly; as a consequence all

* *Somnus* is the Latin word for sleep. The thought was personified in the person of the god of sleep who was named *Somnus*.

† [*A-fa'zia*.] "The impairment or abolition of the faculty of using and understanding written and spoken language independently of any failure of the intellectual processes or any disease or paralysis of the vocal organs." The word is derived from the Greek verb to speak.

kinds of accumulations and degenerations obstruct the system of the man and the woman who have passed middle life. Gout, rheumatism, diseases of the heart, dyspepsia, debility, come on long before three-score years and ten are reached.

Obesity is seldom found among those who live in a state of nature, and is rarely mentioned in the writings of antiquity except when connected with luxury. Exercise is necessary to burn up and discharge these products by increased respiration and expiration. A Turkish bath as a substitute for the perspiration produced by wholesome and vigorous exercise; or the stimulus of the kidneys by mineral waters in the absence of the proper discharge of the functions of the skin are in a physiological sense a sort of watering of the stock which is on the high road to physical insolvency.

Only systematic exercise prepares us for those emergencies upon which the prolongation of life often depends. A citizen who despised exercise was awakened at midnight by a cry of fire; hastily raising a window and looking out he saw the building next his own was in flames. He hurried about the house gathering his valuables, carried them into the street, and fell dead. A clergyman, finding himself left by a train and liable to miss an important appointment, carried a carpet bag the short distance of three miles, reached his destination breathless, and in a few moments died.

During the famous blizzard I was for three days kept within twelve miles of the city of New York. After waiting nine hours in the cars, perceiving no hope of relief, and ascer-

taining that we were within a mile and a half of the city of Mount Vernon, I determined to go through the snow. The atmosphere contained an element which was very weakening, the wind was blowing hard, the temperature was low, and the snow falling. In advance of me was a man of giant frame, but evidently unaccustomed to exercise. Before he reached Mount Vernon he gasped for breath and in a few moments was dead.

No one can foresee when an unusual exertion will be demanded of him, either in self-preservation or in aid of those whom he loves or in some deed of common humanity or jointly with his neighbors and townsmen in preserving their homes from destruction by fire. Had exercise no other value than that of keeping men in condition to endure unusual strain, it would be an ample compensation for the time and exertion it requires.

But it is a pleasure, it is the best improvement of leisure, it is a promoter of good morals, and closely connected with health and longevity. William Cullen Bryant continued his exercises till he was past eighty; Mr. Gladstone never omits his bath and exercise; John Ericsson, though working twelve or fifteen hours a day, always walked the streets of New York from ten o'clock in the evening until midnight for exercise.

In the further prosecution of the subject of physical culture it will be necessary to treat particular forms of exercise. The present paper is designed to clear the way for the intelligent consideration of their adaptation to special needs, of their healthfulness and dangers, and of the conditions under which the best results can be obtained.

NATIONAL AGENCIES FOR SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH.

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Director of the United States Geological Survey.

IV.

THE COAST SURVEY (CONCLUDED).

GAUGING is but a part of the work of the Survey. The bottom of the sea is hidden from the sight of the mariner, and the position of all the features of the sea bottom must be fixed in latitude and longitude in order that they may be represented on the charts; and some means must be devised by which the mariner may be able to discover

his position and wind his way over a signless sea. As the frontiersman blazes his way through the trackless forest, so the mariner must have his path laid out and marked in such a manner that he may sail with safety among rocks, around shallows, past bars and spits, and from dry land to deep sea.

For such purposes a topographic survey of a zone of shore land is made. Its promontories, its capes, its rocks, its trees, even its

houses and fences are all placed with relative accuracy on the charts. The pilot or the captain observes these places and finds his way through the waters by his bearings on such landmarks. So nautical charts are made of the ocean-bordered land and the shallow sea, and the mariner finds his way through the emerald waves of danger by observing his position in relation to headland and bay, to rock and cliff, to meadow land and tree, to chimney and church spire. Then he has prepared for him sailing directions, usually called "coast pilots," where the essential facts explanatory of the charts are set forth and the currents are explained, so that he may know whither he is drifting though the currents themselves may not appear to his vision.

The mariner is not left to find his way by charts and coast pilots only, for the general government provides other aids for navigation, such as astronomical tables, light-houses, buoys, fog horns, etc.; but all this work of the Government belongs to other bureaus and will be mentioned in a later article.

The compass needle, with which all are familiar, is popularly supposed to point to the north, and with practical constancy. A closer study, however, of the behavior of a very sensitive magnetic needle shows that it is ever shifting its direction, and that there are few places on the earth's surface where its direction is north and south. In the United States the north-pointing end of the needle has a regular rhythmic movement. During the early morning and up to seven or eight o'clock the north-pointing end swings slowly to the east, reaching what is called the eastern elongation; as the day advances this north end begins to move backward toward the west, continuing this movement until about one o'clock, when it has reached what is called its western elongation; it then slowly returns, and usually remains till the following morning somewhere between these two extremes. This is the normal or undisturbed motion of the needle. But the time of its reaching the eastern or the western elongation is not the same in winter as in summer; neither is the amount the same. Thus there is a yearly period in its motion, as well as a daily.

A careful analysis of its motions reveals what is yet more striking,—that there is another period, of about twenty-seven days, in which there is a minute movement due

to the moon's action. Yet again: observation has revealed a periodicity in the appearance of spots upon the sun. At one period the sun will be marked by dark spots, these spots increasing in size and frequency to a maximum and then slowly diminishing until for days the sun's face is spotless. The period of this change is about eleven years, and curiously enough a corresponding rhythmic motion is recorded by the magnet,—that is, the variation of the needle has an eleven-year or sun-spot period.

Finally, there is another periodic motion to which the magnetic needle is subject, which is of more importance than any other. It is the secular change, or the change which occurs through a long series of years. Thus, near the beginning of the present century, in Washington, the compass needle pointed approximately due north. In 1840 it pointed about one degree west of north, in 1850 nearly two degrees west of north, in 1870 three degrees, while now it points about four and one third degrees west of north. Now this progressive change which is going on from decade to decade in Washington is a widely observed phenomenon throughout the world. When this increase of westerly declination is to cease in Washington and the declination to begin to diminish, no man knows.

There are very few places in the world where this secular cycle has been observed. At Paris and London, however, the observations have been continued long enough to determine it. In Paris in 1580 the north end of the needle pointed about nine and one half degrees to the east of north: About 230 years later, or in 1810, the north end had swung westward until it pointed about twenty-two and one half degrees west of north, and since that date it has been swinging back eastward. The study and observations made by the Coast Survey, with the materials collected by it, are essential to the acquisition of a complete knowledge, past and future, of the compass in the United States.

The magnetic elements are known as the declination, the inclination, and the intensity. The amount by which the north end of the needle deviates from due north, or the angle which the needle makes with the meridian, is the declination. If the needle is so made as to permit of a vertical as well as a horizontal motion, it does not remain level, but within our territory the northern end dips

down below the horizon to an amount which is not the same in different places and is not constant at the same place. This angle which the needle makes with the horizon is the dip or inclination. If, therefore, we would know the direction in which the magnetic force is acting we must know the declination and the inclination. Lastly, we have intensity. If we take a compass needle at rest upon its pivot and pull it to one side from the position it has assumed and release it, it will swing back, and after a few oscillations come to rest approximately in its former position. The force which pulls it back is known as the horizontal intensity. We may call it a directive force, and it is this directive force which is of great practical moment.

Within the limits of the United States this force is amply sufficient to direct the needle of an ordinary compass, but this is not true everywhere. In high northern latitudes, as in the Arctic Ocean north of Bering Strait, for example, where whale fishing has been so extensively carried on, this directive force is very weak,—so weak indeed that the compasses of the whale ships are very sluggish and seemingly with difficulty point out the magnetic north. As the sailors say, "The compass will not travel," and so it is not uncommon to see a string attached to the compass and held in the hand of the steersman, that he may from time to time "stir the compass up and make it travel."

Now, both the dip and the intensity are subject to periodic variations analogous to those of declination, and to determine what these variations are, their amount, their periods, and their importance, is the purpose for which magnetic observatories have been established. In these observatories self-registering instruments called magnetographs automatically record by photography every motion made by the magnets. The directive force above spoken of is a very feeble one even at its strongest, and yet it is subject to regular and periodic changes. One of the three magnetographs in every fully equipped magnetic observatory records these changes, the instrument by which it is registered being sufficiently sensitive to record a change of a 20,000th part of this feeble force. The amount of the changes and their period, while differing considerably for stations widely apart, are not very different for stations somewhat nearer together. Thus the number of such observatories necessary for

securing all needful information need not be very great.

The investigation of terrestrial magnetism has been carried on by the Coast Survey with great activity, and so thoroughly that it has practically covered the entire field. In addition to its own observations, other observations of all classes and kinds relating to this subject have been most industriously collected for years, arranged, tabulated, and discussed, and the information therein contained made available for public use. The one element in all this which is most in demand is the knowledge of the variation of the compass at a particular place and a particular time. Many boundary lines, particularly between the properties of private owners, have been run in years gone by with compasses; when with lapse of time these lines have become obscure or the marks lost, it has been necessary to retrace them, and in the long interval between the old and the new survey "variation" has altered. As a result the Coast Survey is constantly applied to for information as to what the variation was at a certain place thirty, forty, or fifty years ago. The answers to these questions are set forth in a paper by assistant Chas. A. Schott, who has made this subject peculiarly his own.

As has already been stated, all topographic surveys must rest upon some system of triangulation, which is made more or less accurate according to the demands of the case. When the survey is an extensive one and the distance involved great, it becomes of the greatest importance that the various points should be related to each other with a high degree of precision. It is also necessary in extensive surveys to consider the curvature of the earth, the assumption of a plane surface being impermissible if the area considered involves even but a few square miles. The operation of surveying becomes, therefore, a real earth measurement, and the science of surveying on such a scale is known as geodesy.

Under the head of geodesy several operations are included, the principal of which are primary triangulation, determination of the position of points by astronomical observation, and precise leveling. The accurate representation of the results of a survey of this character demands an accurate knowledge of the form of the earth and at the same time furnishes the means for determining this form. A system of triangulation of con-

siderable accuracy is necessary in connection with the topographical survey of the coasts, in order that the relation of the various points determined may be precisely known and accurately represented upon charts.

All of our knowledge as to the exact figure of the earth must be credited to geodetic operations, which have been carried on with an increasing degree of precision during the last two hundred and fifty years. That we are still ignorant of its exact form must be admitted, but the geodetic work in progress in this country and abroad will lead ere long to a very exact solution of the problem.

One of the best methods of determining the figure of the earth is by means of observations upon the variations in the force of gravitation upon its surface. The force of gravity, or the "pull" which the earth exerts upon the bodies on its surface, is not the same in all parts of that surface. The origin of these variations seems to be twofold. First, the earth is not a regular geometric figure. Its polar diameter is less than its equatorial diameter. The land is more elevated than the sea, and the land itself has basins and mountains. Second, the crust of the earth, or that portion which can be studied by geologists, at and immediately below the surface, is composed of rocks of varying constitution—light rocks here, heavy rocks there. For all these reasons gravity varies, and it has become an important matter to science that these variations in gravity be determined and their laws revealed. The force of gravity is measured by the swing of the pendulum. If a pendulum is set in motion where the force of gravity is greater than the average the pendulum vibrates more rapidly, if where the force of gravity is less than the average the pendulum vibrates more slowly.

Gravitational measurements have been made by the Coast Survey on a large scale. In the earlier work the apparatus for pendulum measurements was complicated and expensive; in the later work simple instruments are used and the cost of the work has been greatly reduced and its accuracy increased.

The superintendent of the Coast and Geodetic Survey has also been from the beginning superintendent of Weights and Measures, the relation between the offices having doubtless grown out of the fact that the Coast Survey first demanded and required

measures of precision. The charge of their construction and comparison was therefore placed with the superintendent, where it has since remained.

It is not known by many people how little legislation has ever taken place in Congress on the subject of weights and measures. Although the Constitution gives Congress authority to establish a system of weights and measures and coinage, and although Congress early gave its attention to the establishment of a system of coinage, believed to be as perfect as any now existing, yet it has never established a system of weights and measures. The only units of weight and measure which have actually received the official sanction of Congress by the enactment of law are the Troy pound, brought to this country by Albert Gallatin during the administration of John Quincy Adams, which was specifically designated by Congress as the unit for the control of the coinage of the United States, and the metric units of length and mass, the use of which was declared to be legal in this country by Congress in 1866.

The nearly uniform custom prevailing throughout the country in the use of weights and measures has grown out of the action of Congress more than fifty years ago, by which the Office of Weights and Measures was authorized to send to every state of the Union accurate copies of the standards then in use by the Treasury Department. These standards were generally adopted by the various states to which they were sent, and thus practical uniformity was secured. The Office of Weights and Measures has charge of the preservation of the actual standards in use by the Treasury Department, and is thus the final and only court of appeal in all questions arising in reference to weights and measures. Its functions include the standardizing of weights and measures of length and capacity in use in the Customs Department of the United States, the construction and standardizing of weights and measures for new states as they are admitted to the Union, and in a general way such service as similar offices or bureaus render in other countries.

In this office are to be found the original brass bar made by Troughton and Simms, of London, on which is engraved the standard yard, and which was brought to this country by Mr. Hassler, the first superintendent of

this survey; many interesting copies of the British yard and pound; and also the beautiful and perfect national prototypes, representing the meter and kilogram, constructed by the International Bureau of Weights and Measures and brought to this country a little more than a year ago, the seals having been broken by the president of the United States on January 2, 1890.

The Office of Weights and Measures also determines for the Treasury Department standards of polarization for the sugar test used in the customs service, provides densimeters for examination of various liquids by customs officers, and in a general way has to do with all questions in which an exact value of units is essential.

To accomplish all this work a large force of scientific men is constantly employed as civil officers of the Government, and in addition to these many officers and sailors

of the Navy are detailed to this service.

So the work progresses from year to year; sounding the deep sea, surveying the coast and harbors, discovering the shoals and bars and rocks, gauging tides and currents, mapping the landmarks, and extending the geodetic survey over the continent in order that charts may be correct and the figure of the earth may be known. Finally, the magnetism of the earth is investigated and consistent weights and measures are prepared for the people.

All this is done primarily in the interest of commerce, and secondarily in the interest of defense.

The scientific questions and the business interests seem to be most alluring to the present superintendent of the Coast and Geodetic Survey, for Dr. T. C. Mendenhall is a Quaker by birth, a teacher by profession, and a *savant* by scientific genius.

THE BUREAU OF ANIMAL INDUSTRY.

BY GEORGE W. HILL.

Of the United States Department of Agriculture.

PRIOR to May, 1884, when the Bureau of Animal Industry as it now exists was created by act of Congress, the interests of the animal kingdom in the Department of Agriculture were confided to a Veterinary* Division. The duties of this division were practically limited to the compilation of information relating to live stock and the investigation of animal diseases. Of administrative duties it practically had none. Even the quarantine stations where animals imported from Europe were detained, were under the control of the Treasury Department.

The necessity for more efficient control of animal diseases liable to be spread by the transfer of cattle from one state to another, and the necessity for supervision of our cattle exports, had not infrequently been urged on behalf of American cattle growers. The westward movement of the farmer, as distinguished from the mere rancher, had finally

reached and even gone beyond the Texas cattle trail over which annually thousands of Texan-raised cattle were driven to the ranches of Colorado, Wyoming, Montana, etc. The result of this was to call for some regulation of the interstate cattle traffic, as these cattle coming in contact with Northern-raised animals before a sufficient time had elapsed to prevent their transmitting the disease known as Texas fever, yearly threatened the cattle on the farms in the neighborhood of what was known as the cattle trail.

Almost simultaneously with this condition of things in the West, European governments adopted certain restrictive regulations, based upon the allegation of the existence in this country of animal diseases, either communicable to other animals, such as contagious pleuropneumonia, or inimical to the health of consumers of animal food, such as trichinosis [trik-i-nō'sis] in swine. American pork products were prohibited entirely in Germany and France, and subsequently in some other countries, while Great Britain required the slaughter at port of landing within ten days after such landing, of all cattle shipped from the United States.

*From a Latin adjective spelled nearly the same, meaning belonging to beasts of burden; it is derived from the verb *vehere*, to carry, to bear. The English adjective is restricted in its use to the art of healing the diseases of domestic animals.

The result on our cattle trade was most disastrous. The compulsory slaughter of American cattle within a limited period after landing in Great Britain, placed American shippers at a grievous disadvantage with their Canadian neighbors, whose cattle being privileged could be afforded an opportunity to recuperate from the trying consequences of an ocean voyage, and to be properly fitted for market. As to the result of the prohibition of American pork, imposed by Germany and France, it needs only to be stated that whereas our exports of pork products had increased from \$12,500,000 in 1871 to over \$69,000,000 in 1881, they fell at once after the establishment of the prohibitions referred to, to about \$40,000,000, and even in 1891 they aggregated but a trifle over \$50,000,000.

These conditions naturally led to considerable agitation among cattle men, and to this was added the fear that pleuropneumonia, which had already obtained a foothold in some of the eastern states of the Union, might, unless speedily and effectually controlled, attain the proportions already attained in Great Britain, whence it had first been introduced into this country. In that comparatively small and densely populated country a few years' neglect, followed by legislative enactments of a very inadequate character, had allowed the disease to obtain a foothold which made its eradication an impossibility.

The enormous losses occasioned in other countries by this disease naturally gave rise to the gravest apprehensions among American cattle growers, and, while the other conditions mentioned unquestionably co-operated, the existence of pleuropneumonia was doubtless the principal cause which contributed to the creation by Congress of the Bureau of Animal Industry.

Almost its first duty was thoroughly to investigate the alleged cases of contagious pleuropneumonia in the United States, the result showing that the disease did actually exist to a greater or less extent in the states of New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and New Jersey, with the result that a few cases were found in some of the more western states. These, however, were quickly traced by the vigilance of the officers of the new Bureau, and the administrative powers conferred upon it by Congress resulted in its prompt suppression.

The magnitude of the disaster to American

cattle interests, which would have followed the introduction of this disease into the western states and territories, can never be adequately estimated. The difficulties of efficient quarantine and adequate control becoming greater and greater as it proceeded westward, the probabilities are that had this occurred, we should to-day be compelled, like the British authorities, to declare the extirpation of the disease within our borders an impossibility, and to confine our efforts merely to a modified control of the disease within certain limits.

Fortunately, the Bureau of Animal Industry was established just in time, and its wonderfully efficient work is shown in the fact that in his latest report to the president, the secretary of agriculture is enabled to state that, with the exception of a small district in the state of New Jersey and another on Long Island, N. Y., the country has been absolutely rid of this disease, while, during the present calendar year, but four herds were found infected on Long Island, the last of which was discovered and slaughtered last April.

Notwithstanding the practical eradication of this disease, the British government nevertheless maintains its grievous restrictions on all cattle imported into British ports from the United States, thus working a grave loss yearly to American cattle growers, and it is really difficult to believe that these restrictions are maintained solely from the conviction that they are necessary to prevent infection from American sources.

In August, 1890, the secretary of agriculture sent to England three inspectors of the Bureau of Animal Industry with instructions to examine all animals landed in that country from the United States, and to report to him all cases of disease found among such animals, at the same time obtaining permission from the British government for one of his inspectors to be present at the examination of any animal alleged by the British authorities to be suffering from the disease in question.

It is naturally regarded as a great triumph by the Bureau authorities that out of all the many hundreds and thousands of cattle shipped to Great Britain from the United States since that date, but three allegations of the existence of contagious pleuropneumonia among these cattle, have been made by the British authorities, and in each

and every case the diagnosis of the American inspecting officers who disputed the allegation, has been finally confirmed by the highest British veterinary authority.

The regulation of Texas fever in this country has been a somewhat more difficult matter; state interests have had to be considered, and in many cases have been at variance with the interests of other states and of the cattle trade in general, necessitating the enforcement of regulations not infrequently regarded by sections of our population as arbitrary and uncalled for. Perseverance on certain lines has, however, accomplished great results, and for the past two years immunity from this disease has been secured in our Northern cattle markets and, to a very great extent, among export cattle. The powers conferred on the Bureau in this respect, however, seem hardly yet adequate to the work required of it.

In connection with this control of the movement of Southern cattle, the figures in the last report of the secretary of agriculture give some indication of the immense amount of labor devolving upon the Bureau in its administrative capacity. He says:

"Some idea of the amount of work done by the Bureau in supervising the movement of Southern cattle may be had from the fact that the total number of carloads of cattle which were separated and kept distinct in course of transportation amounted to 40,542, containing 1,051,626 head of Southern cattle."

With the full powers asked for by the Secretary, there is little doubt, in the light of the experience already had, that the transmission of this disease to Northern cattle can be absolutely prevented, and no cases permitted to occur among export cattle. This last is especially important, as the occurrence of the disease among such cattle is liable to be offered as a reason by the British authorities for maintaining their vexatious restrictions, when they are obliged to admit that they are no longer justifiable on the ground of pleuropneumonia.

The third great cause of anxiety to our stock raisers, namely, the prohibitive laws of Germany and France with reference to our pork products, prohibitive laws which were subsequently enforced in several other countries of Europe, was the most difficult of all to remove. Patience and perseverance, the energy of the present secretary of agricul-

ture, the earnest co-operation of the president himself, and the diplomatic skill and tact of the Department of State and its representatives abroad, have, however, at last succeeded.

But in order to succeed, it has been necessary to more than double the work of the Bureau, by imposing upon it not only the inspection of all animals slaughtered for interstate or foreign trade, but in the case of pork, a microscopical examination with a view to determining the presence or otherwise of trichinae.

When this course was first proposed, many practical men said that it was impossible to carry it out. The secretary of agriculture thought otherwise, and the sequel has proved that he was right. The position he assumed was, that the United States could not ask foreign governments which imposed upon their own pork products a rigid inspection, to accept the American product uninspected, and obviously, the only course was to adopt in the case of all establishments supplying the foreign trade, a thoroughly efficient system of inspection. The Act of March 3, 1891, was the result, and to-day, the oppressive measure has been removed by Germany, France, Italy, and Denmark, with the probability that all other European countries in which this prohibition has been enforced, will follow suit.

The immense increase in the work of the Bureau, occasioned by recent legislation, necessitated a reorganization of that Bureau, and an assignment of the work to four Divisions, namely, the Division of Inspection, the Division of Animal Pathology, the Division of Field Investigations and Miscellaneous Work, and the Division of Quarantine. The first is charged with the inspection of all live animals intended for export; an inspection in Great Britain by American veterinarians of all cattle landed in that country from the United States; the inspection of all cattle and swine imported into the United States; and the inspection and regulation of all vessels carrying export cattle from this country to foreign nations. It also covers the work of meat inspection.

Few people have an adequate conception of the work involved under these inspection laws. The inspectors in Great Britain, for instance, have in little more than a year, inspected 374,000 head of cattle and 11,000 head of sheep, while, in a somewhat shorter period

of time, a total of 326,500 head have been inspected on this side at port of shipment. In addition to inspection of these animals by a competent veterinarian, each animal is, at the time of inspection, tagged with a metal tag, which is numbered, and a record is kept of the number and of sufficient data relative to each animal to enable the Bureau, in case any of them be reported diseased on arrival abroad, to trace it at once back to the farm whence originally purchased.

Under the law requiring the inspection of all imported animals, there have been inspected 2,456 cattle, 129,090 sheep, and 54 swine imported from Canada alone. The total number of cattle-carrying vessels inspected since July 1 up to October 1, 1891, was 215. In the work of meat inspection which entails not only an inspection of each animal before slaughter, but of the carcass after slaughter, and as already stated, in the case of swine, of microscopical inspection, a total number of 1,016,614 animals were inspected between the beginning of June and the first day of October, 1891. Of this number, 844,581 were cattle; 15,330 calves; 9,3331 sheep; 63,372 hogs; 373,149 quarters of dressed beef were tagged for export and 2,009,462 for interstate trade; 379,872 packages of canned, salted, and smoked meats were stamped in accordance with regulations. The total number of animals condemned and sent to the fertilizing tanks out of this vast number was 1,976.

The Division of Animal Pathology,* as the name implies, is charged with investigations in regard to the nature, prevention, and treatment of animal diseases. This work necessitates the maintenance of a thoroughly equipped laboratory, well provided with apparatus and modern appliances for this class of investigations. The principal work done in this Division during the past year has been in relation to Texas fever; to swine diseases; to inoculation † as a means of preventing diseases of animals, and to the investigation of animal parasites affecting our domesticated animals.

For a fuller appreciation of the importance

*The science of diseases. From two Greek words *pathos*, suffering, and *logos*, discourse.

†Latin *in*, and *oculare*, to furnish with eyes, from *oculus*, eye. The name was first applied to the method of grafting by inserting the buds of one tree in another tree, then given to the act of communicating disease from one person to another by inserting the contagious matter under the skin.

of the work confided to this Division, it is necessary to bear in mind the fact, that in the present light of medical science, pathological studies in regard to the animal kingdom are very closely allied to those necessitated by the diseases of man. In the pursuit of pathological studies, moreover, the animal pathologist is enabled to proceed much further than he who confines himself to treating the diseases of man. The absolute control of the subject, and even, ultimately, if found necessary, its destruction, are the privileges of the animal pathologist. It does not, therefore, take any great gift of prophecy to foretell that the work of this Division will yearly assume more importance and become the subject of more attentive study by pathologists generally—those devoted to the study of the diseases of man as well as those devoted to the study of the diseases of animals.

Under the Division of Field Investigations and Miscellaneous Work, a corps of inspectors is constantly employed in making investigations as to the character, etc., of reported outbreaks, and of contagious diseases in various states, and it is gratifying to record the fact that in a very great many cases where sensational rumors of the existence of contagious diseases have been started, the prompt work of the Bureau inspectors has proved these rumors to be without foundation. It is, indeed, no exaggeration to state that in no other country upon the face of the globe are domestic animals more generally free from disease than in the United States.

Under the Quarantine Division, stations securely inclosed, provided with suitable sheds, yards, and conveniences for the care of stock, and conducted under regulations rigidly carried out so as to make impossible the communication of any contagious disease which may be found in animals received at these stations, are maintained at Boston, New York, and Baltimore. All cattle imported from foreign countries are detained in these quarantine stations for a period of ninety days from the date of arrival, and a quarantine of fifteen days is also imposed upon all sheep and swine imported from foreign countries into the United States.

The work of the Bureau of Animal Industry naturally calls for the frequent publication of important bulletins. In the first place, the Bureau is required by law to present a report of its work at each session of Congress, this in addition to the annual report issued

as a part of the report of the secretary of agriculture, of which 400,000 copies are printed yearly by an order of Congress. Special reports of the Bureau covering particular periods have also been ordered by Congress on several occasions, usually in editions of 50,000 each, the great proportion of which are distributed by the Congressmen themselves. These special reports, besides containing a review of the work of the Bureau for the period named, frequently contain many interesting articles upon the various phases of the live stock industry in this country.

Of the bulletins prepared in the Bureau and published by authority of the secretary of agriculture, we may mention the work on the parasites of sheep, of which an edition of 15,000 was speedily exhausted, necessitating the printing of another edition of 5,000 copies. A special bulletin on hog cholera was issued in 1889, and one on swine plague in 1891. These are two distinct diseases and must not be confounded, as is frequently the case. That which has attracted the most attention, doubtless, is a work on the diseases of the horse, of which 40,000 in all have been printed by the Department of Agriculture, while Congress found it necessary to order a special edition of 100,000, of which it was provided that 10,000 should be for the use of the Department and 90,000 for the use of Members of Congress.

The foregoing brief summary of the work

of the Bureau of Animal Industry will, it is hoped, give the reader sufficient information to enable him to appreciate the character of the work for which it is responsible. Without going into details, it is quite impossible to give the reader an adequate idea of the vast amount of work which the exacting character of the duties imposed on the Bureau necessitates. So, also, with regard to the value of the work done, which to be properly appreciated, must be considered in the light of the vast aggregate of capital invested in the animal industry of this country. A knowledge of this can only be imparted by the presentation of somewhat extended statistical data, which could hardly find an appropriate place in this article.

Enough has been said, it is hoped, to awaken sufficient interest in the work of the Bureau in the minds of many people hitherto ignorant of its scope and character to invite further inquiry, and to such I would recommend the annual reports of the Bureau, as published in the report of the secretary of agriculture, and the special reports ordered from time to time by Congress, to which reference has been made.

It should be stated, in conclusion, that the gentleman in charge of this Bureau is Dr. D. E. Salmon, appointed in 1884 when the Bureau was first organized. Dr. Salmon is a graduate of Cornell, and is now one of the trustees of that University.

End of Required Reading for February.

JAMES RUSSELL LOWELL.

BY GEORGE WILLIS TONG.

THE world doth seem less fair than yesterday
 Since thou art fall'n. Heaven may lose the star,
 With less of loss, which cheers dim worlds afar,
 Than gloom in night the splendors of thy ray—
 The full-orbed glory of our present day—
 Sunshine of soul. But death cannot debar
 The world of light thou gavest nor may mar
 Thy garnered glory, which shall live alway.

Yea, thou shalt live in truths thou didst inspire,
 In souls illumined ere thy light had sped ;
 Live in the love of every loyal man ;
 Live as a master of the sounding lyre—
 Greater in heart than in all done or said—
 Time's highest type—a true American.

HIGHBINDERS.

BY FREDERIC J. MASTERS.

THE origin of the Chinese secret societies in California called "Highbinders" dates back two hundred and twenty years, to the time of Kang Hi, second emperor of the Tai Tsing* dynasty. In the Kow Leen Mountains was a Buddhist monastery, the monks of which had rendered signal service to the new government at a time when the Manchu rule was in peril. A faction at Peking jealous of the influence and popularity of the monks, formed a plot to accomplish their ruin. They were falsely accused of treason; the ungrateful monarch believed the report and ordered their destruction. The monastery was fired and nearly all the inmates put to the sword. Five monks out of one hundred and twenty-eight were all that survived the massacre which followed.

The five fugitives after many vicissitudes and wanderings discovered one day, on the banks of a lake, a tripod, on the bottom of which were inscribed four Chinese characters meaning "Overthrow the Tsing and restore the Ming."† This mysterious inscription was taken as the command of Heaven. The Hung or Triad league was formed with these words as their watchword; and the five Buddhist monks became the founders of a revolutionary society whose vow was recorded in blood never to rest till the massacre of the monks was avenged, the hated Tsing dynasty overthrown, and a native dynasty restored to the dragon throne. Such in the main is the history of Hungism as found in the rituals of the revolutionary secret societies in China. It is curious that the same story is told in the ritual of the Chee Kung Tong or Yee Hing Society found in the United States.

The relationship of all these societies is established beyond doubt. The Triad Society, that was responsible for the great Tae Ping rebellion thirty years ago and the loss of twenty millions of lives; the Ko Lo Hwey, that is now destroying mission property in the Yang-tsze valley; and the Society that is

responsible for so much crime in the Chinese settlements of California, are all the offspring of the Hung league. All venerate the five monks; all use the common triangle symbol of heaven, earth, and man; all accept the monastic faith in human brotherhood and equality, and the duty of disinterested love of mankind. How widely their creed and practice diverge will appear as we proceed.

The parent society of the Highbinders of California were rebels who fled to the United States to escape the wholesale executions that followed the late rebellion. They soon formed the society known in California as the Chee Kung Tong, or Chamber of High Justice, and in the eastern states by the title of Yee Hing Hwey, or Society of Righteous Brotherhood!

When they broke out in overt acts of terrorism, the police gave them the name of Highbinders, though on what etymological grounds the term was chosen it is hard to say. The word has been generally accepted as a generic term for Chinese secret associations in California.

The headquarters of the Chee Kung Tong for the whole continent is on Spofford Alley, San Francisco. There is a grand master called Ah Tai, a secretary called Chong Yuen, an introducer called Sin Fung, and a chief swordsman called Hung Kwan Shan, besides numerous subordinate officers.

Very little would have been known of the internal character of the society but for the book of ritual which a police officer found and handed to the writer a few months ago. The passwords, signs, symbols, oaths of initiation, and other ceremonies are too numerous for detail. The initiation of members is impressive. The quaintly robed officials, the lictors brandishing spears and swords, the high altar with its tinsel gilded carvings and tapestry, the canopied images of the "five ancestors," and the dusky image of the God of War, make up a scene of barbaric splendor sufficient to inspire a superstitious people with awe.

The neophyte first unplaits his queue* as a

* Tai Tsing means Great Pure and is the style of the present Manchu or Tartar dynasty.

† Ming means Bright and refers to the Ming dynasty which was dethroned by the Tartars in 1643.

* It is well known that the queue, or "pigtail," is the outward sign of allegiance to the Tai Tsing dynasty.

sign of his renunciation of allegiance to the Tartar kings; he casts off his dress, is clothed in a five colored gown with a white girdle, and wears a turban made of red cloth. This red turban was the distinguishing mark of the Tae Pings, who are still spoken of in China as the red-headed rebels.

The novice escorted by Sin Fung passes under an arch of swords and bows down before the grand master while the swords of eight councilors are laid upon his naked shoulder. A cup of wine is prepared, each novice's finger is pierced with a silver needle, and the blood is allowed to flow into the wine. This horrible mixture is then drunk by the candidates, a ceremony which is called admission into blood relationship.

The novice then formally renounces allegiance to the reigning sovereign, disowns every family tie, declares his parents dead, and proceeds to crawl under the chair of the grand master, who is called mother, a ceremony which is called being "born again." It is this renunciation of kith and kin which has made this society so deservedly odious among the better behaved Chinese.

Advancing to the next stage the novice is taught the passwords and secret signs. The use of these secret words has given some semblance of truth to the fiction that the Chee Kung Tong is "alla sim Flee Mason."

Thirty-six oaths are taken in front of the altar. A rooster's head is cut off while the novice declares, "If ever I prove traitor may my head be thus severed from my body." This is the most binding form of oath a Chinaman can take. He swears never to divulge the secrets of the society, imprecating upon himself the most horrible kind of death. He vows eternal enmity to the Manchu government and pledges his life and fortune to reinstate a native Chinese dynasty. He swears eternal allegiance to the society and obedience to its mandates, promises under terrible penalties never to recognize the jurisdiction of the American courts of law, never to give evidence there without permission of his superior, and to regard the society of which he becomes a member as the only tribunal and government whose authority he recognizes.

It will be seen that the Chee Kung Tong started as a revolutionary association, but as such it has been a long time practically dead. It has been incorporated under the laws of the state of California. It is now admitted by the Chinese consulate and the heads of

the Six Companies, to be a band of assassins and blackmailers that terrorizes over every Chinese community within its reach. On the Tong premises is said to be a court room where persons inimical to the society are tried and condemned in their absence. Officers are then selected to discover the so-called culprit and deal with him as directed by the court. These officers are called salaried soldiers, and are armed with a coat of mail and a belt of weapons concealed beneath their blouses.

One of these soldiers was arrested a few years ago in Victoria, B. C. On his person was found his commission bearing the well-known seal of the Chee Kung Tong, promising that if in the discharge of his duty he should happen to be slain five hundred dollars would be paid to his family; if wounded he was to receive free medical attendance and ten dollars per month; if maimed and incapacitated for further service, he was to receive two hundred and fifty dollars and his passage to China. He was commissioned to wound or kill persons when ordered by the Tong, and if for so doing he was sent to the state prison, one hundred dollars per annum would be paid to his family until his sentence had expired.

The influence of the Chee Kung Tong has been somewhat neutralized in California of late years by the opposition of rival societies of which there are twenty in San Francisco. They are called Po Tau Hwey, or "hatchet societies," the active members of which are called "hatchet boys." Unlike the Chee Kung Tong they profess no political character. They call themselves mutual protective associations. Their printed rules contain many admirable sentiments, but the record of most of them is if possible blacker and bloodier than the Chee Kung Tong.

Mr. Pickering of the British colonial service speaking of the Chinese Tien-ti Highbinders of the Straits settlements says, "It is a combination to carry out private quarrels, uphold the interests of members in spite of law, and to raise money by levying fees on brothels and gaming houses."

This language exactly describes the Highbinders of San Francisco. One society called "Hall of Maintained Justice" was started to resist the aggressions of the Chee Kung Tong. The Gal Shin Shez, or "Guild of Hereditary Virtue," and the Po Shin She, or "Guild for the Protection of Virtue," are two societies

responsible for the worst crimes that have blackened the Chinese settlement. Other societies have equally grandiloquent names and are equally criminal. Some protect the brothel interest, others the gambling dens, others are interested in the importation of women of ill fame.

When some wrong is done by one society to another and compensation is refused, as for instance, when a woman is taken out of a house of prostitution without paying redemption money, or when one society in its black-mailing raids poaches upon another's preserves, and collects money from the wrong house, there follows war.

The hostile bands select their soldiers and arm them for the fray. It matters not when or where, in broad daylight or late at night, on the open street or up some dark alley, when they meet they open fire regardless of danger to the life of passers by.

A battle occurred a few months ago at mid-day on one of the main streets, between seven or eight desperate men. A running fight was kept up along the street, in which two men were shot. In a few minutes the police were on the spot but the murderers had vanished in the crowd, the only marks of the conflict being a score of bullet holes in windows, doors, and walls for the distance of half a block.

Another of these street battles, in which two men were mortally wounded, occurred one evening in October last. The murderers escaped as usual, and covered up their tracks so effectually that the detectives were all in the dark. Numbers of Chinese saw the shooting, but when the detectives began their work every mouth was sealed. All that could be got from them was "no gabbe," then there was silence and a look of stolid indifference. This taciturnity of Chinese witnesses of Highbinder crimes is very provoking, but the terror of the Tongs is upon them; they dare not tell.

In these street fights a daring courage has been displayed which discounts the traditional opinion that a Chinaman shows the white feather and cannot fight. The late General C. G. Gordon, who put down the rebellion, told a different story after the heroic exploits of his little Chinese force, "the ever victorious army."

The average Highbinder does not know what fear is. He has no fear of his foes, of the police or the courts—no fear of God be-

fore his eyes, hence "his feet are swift to shed blood." He will stand unmoved with the bullets whistling around him where most Europeans would turn pale. Even when lying on the ground mortally wounded he has been known to raise his head, take cool aim and fire, a parting shot at his antagonist, and then resign himself to the ambulance. At the hospital he will bear pain without a groan, bear operations with a stoical contempt for anæsthetics, and when he dies he will gather comfort from the thought that he will have a splendid funeral, his family a pension and enough to pay for Buddhist masses for his soul in purgatory.

Most of the fighting Highbinders are good marksmen. They are said to eat a dish of wild cat before a battle. This animal's eyesight being supposed to be very keen, its flesh is believed to improve the eater's vision and to give precision to his aim. Constant practice at the shooting galleries, however, is sufficient to account for that deadly aim of which alas! we have had so many instances in San Francisco.

These instances of open violence are terrible enough. But the worst feature of Highbinderism is its interference with the administration of justice. The accumulated wealth of many of the societies is freely employed to engage counsel, suborn perjury, bribe venal officials, and make it impossible to convict criminals in whom they have an interest. A hired assassin is never deserted when he gets into trouble. There was Lee Chuck an assassin and blackmailer who was arrested red-handed. In one night the Highbinders of two societies collected \$30,000 to defend his life at the criminal sessions. They declared he would never hang and they spoke the truth. It was only after a most determined effort of the district attorney, and three trials, that this ruffian was sentenced to fifty years penal servitude.

But the most diabolical procedure is making use of the processes of law to trump up charges against innocent men who have had the temerity to incur the enmity of a secret society. A few years ago a Chinaman married a respectable girl. A large sum of money was demanded by the society whose chattel she was. On his refusing to pay, the poor man was charged with murder and thrown into prison. But for the missionary who saw through the conspiracy and interested himself in the poor fellow's behalf, an

innocent man might have been sent to the gallows.

Another instance occurred at St. Louis six years ago when six members of the Chue family, who had committed some offense against the Yee Hing Society, were falsely charged with murder. Carefully coached witnesses were sent into the witness box to swear away these innocent lives. A missionary gentleman was fortunately present and translated some very compromising documents. The case broke down, the accused were acquitted, and a victory gained over this terrible foe. Who can tell how many innocent men are now languishing in our penal institutions, the victims of Highbinder conspiracies?

There is no doubt that the shameful laxity and corruption of our courts are largely responsible for the growth of Highbinderism. Many Chinese in California who are members of secret societies would no doubt have ranged themselves on the side of law and order had they any sort of confidence in our administration of justice. Rightly or wrongly they believe that criminals never get their deserts; that juries can be hoodwinked by specious arguments or something worse; that our judicial procedure is slow and expensive, and that a verdict is given to the side that has the longest purse. A Chinaman smarting under a sense of wrong is revengeful. If he cannot find justice by lawful methods he becomes violent.

Here is an instance. Ah K. is a tall handsome Chinaman of fine physique who was once a Highbinder but since his reform has become steward in the United States navy. He married a girl out of the writer's school. While he was at sea his young wife was decoyed from home and carried away. The husband returns, hears the news, and starts in pursuit. After two weeks she is found in a lonely house far away in the country. Her abductors are arrested but the charge breaks down through a defective law. Ah K. saw his foes depart in triumph and then relapsed into original sin.

A Chinaman does not have many such experiences. He goes next time where there is sure redress and swift retribution. He joins, for instance, the Chee Kung Tong. Then he can hold up his head, for he has at his back a power more formidable to his foes than all the courts in the United States. Such men would never take such a wicked course if they

were sure of the protecting arm of justice in our courts.

Again, there are lawless ruffians whose criminal impulses are restrained only by a wholesome fear of the gallows. Rightly or wrongly they believe that our courts are not strong enough to punish crime, that juries are averse to capital punishment, and that governors have nothing to do but to let convicts out of jail. And so we have seen the Highbinder "in great power and spreading himself like a green bay tree." Professing to be benevolent institutions these hatchet societies believe themselves invincible, and have defied every effort of the authorities to reach them by constitutional methods. No one has ever gained access to their meetings to report their proceedings. No uninitiated person could understand their proceedings; or if he did he dare not attempt to expose these centers of conspiracy in a court of law. The power of the Tongs is so formidable that his only escape would be exile, in which case he would better not leave his address behind.

In January, 1891, a bitter Highbinder feud broke out in San Francisco. A battle was fought out in the public street, and before the officers could reach the scene the assassins had vanished. The chief of police in San Francisco is a resolute man, and he decided upon severe measures. He shouldered the grave risks which his course of action involved. The headquarters of the different secret societies in San Francisco, including the formidable Chee Kung Tong, were invaded by squads of armed police. The inmates surprised and bewildered, fled. Furniture was smashed to bits. Even the idols were thrown down and chopped up. The hatchet men were discomfited.

To their credit be it said that the Tongs have long ago given orders never to molest a white man or resist the police. However exasperated they were to see their sanctuary invaded and their gods demolished, no resistance was attempted. As the officers went from Tong to Tong, Chinatown was wild with joy. The Chinese consulate, the Six Companies, and the merchants expressed their satisfaction that the first blow had been struck at this bloody despotism under which men had groaned so long. Hundreds of Chinese who had been enforced members and had joined the societies from fear rather than love, felt a sense of relief.

A suit for damages has since been brought by the Chee Kung Tong against the chief of police. It is the only secret society that has been incorporated by law. The suit is not likely to come to trial, as it would involve an exposure of their methods and personality.

Many of the Chinese it is stated have bound themselves together to indemnify the chief against loss.

A victory for Highbinders in a court of law

would be a calamity. Another vigilance committee will be necessary if Highbinderism is ever protected by our courts.

For the present the secret societies of San Francisco have received a heavy blow. But if the hydra-headed monster is to be crushed special legislation must be enacted for its suppression, and California courts must become, what they are not, a terror to evil doers and a bulwark to those who do right.

OUR SHIPS ON THE LAKES AND SEAS.

BY SAMUEL A. WOOD.

LET the nautical pessimists say what they will, the glory of our merchant marine has not departed. It is regrettably true that our ensign is not seen so frequently in distant ports as it was before the era of iron and steel bottoms, but our domestic argosies, whose myriad sails whiten the greatest water ways of the world, are unsurpassed by those of any other people.

Our sea-going steamships and clippers are few, but, with lake craft and coasters, they form a fleet second only to that of Great Britain.

Our finest oaken sailing vessels—many of which were launched last year—are superior to those that made our marine the admiration and envy of the world afloat when we were seriously thinking of wresting the commercial trident from the British Neptune.

Events of the last several years seem to indicate that the period of our decadence has passed, and we are at the beginning of a revival of our crippled foreign carrying trade, for which rival publicists have been offering remedies for the last quarter of a century.

One school of theorists declares that we can never hope to compete in the transatlantic struggle unless we pay our ship-owners subsidies and bounties; the other school says our merchant marine can never be restored until we are permitted to buy our ships in the best and cheapest market, like the nations that have left us behind in the race.

It is not the purpose of this article to advocate or oppose either group of theorists. Statistics speak louder than theories, and a glance at those of the last few years reveals much to awaken hope in the breasts of the younger generation of Yankee skippers.

The total number of vessels, including barges and canal boats, in our merchant marine is somewhat more than 25,000; four years ago it was several hundred less. As in the merchant fleets of all nations, our sailing vessels are gradually decreasing and our steamers increasing. We had in 1880, 17,042 sailing craft and 4,569 steam vessels. We now have less than 1,500 sailing craft and about 6,500 steamers.

But because our canvas-covered fleet has been diminishing in the last decade at the rate of about 120 vessels a year, it does not necessarily follow that the Yankee clipper—dethroned queen of the deep—is doomed. On the contrary, the clipper and that distinctively American product, the four-masted schooner, have come to stay for a few generations at least. They are yet as profitable as steamships on long voyages. Our big sailing ships are not disappearing, but our old-time vessels of small cargo capacity are going the way of nearly all our unprofitable craft—into the hands of the Norwegians and Germans.

The demand at present is for large cargo space and great sailing ability. The last three years have witnessed an unprecedented activity in the building of giant wooden ships and schooners. The yards of our finest clippers are nearly as long as the masts of some of the record-breakers of the past. Ten years ago the appearance of a four-masted schooner in almost any of our ports excited comment. More than 150 of them have been launched within the last eight years. About 40, many measuring over 1,000 tons, have slipped down the ways since the beginning of 1891. Fifty full-rigged ships have been

built since 1880. Maine, pre-eminent as of old in the making of wooden vessels, turned out 121 craft in 1890 with an aggregate tonnage of 68,211. There were 5 steamers, 4 ships, 1 bark, 7 barkentines, 89 schooners, and 15 sloops. The fore-and-aft rig is popular because the vessels that have it can be worked with less expense.

Many of our big schooners have entered the lumber trade between our southern ports and Europe, hitherto practically monopolized by Norwegian and British vessels. Lumber carriers are generally old and decrepit and can seldom stand a tussle with a cyclone. They are more frequently passed, with cargo floating from bursted hatches and spars alongside, than any other derelicts.

It is likely that shippers of lumber will utilize our many-masted fore-and-afters in the future rather than the venerable craft, often of American make, manned by the searovers of the North Country.

Others of our big schooners are vying with foreign craft in the carrying trade between our own and South American and West Indian ports.

Our lofty-sparred clippers are principally in the grain trade between the Pacific coast and Europe. Many of them make triangular voyages from New York to the Golden Gate, thence to Europe and back again to New York.

Three of the most notable acquisitions to the clipper fleet are the trio of four-masters named after American rivers—the *Shenandoah*, the *Rappahannock*, and the *Susquehanna*—all launched in the last two years.* They are the biggest wooden ships in the world, and are proving so profitable to their owners, Messrs. Arthur Sewall & Co., of Bath, Maine, that others of their class are building. They have what American ships seldom have in these days—American apprentices.

The *Shenandoah* is the largest sailing vessel afloat except the *La France*, a five-masted steel leviathan flying the tricolor. The clipper *Dreadnought*, which crossed the western ocean in ten days, could be stowed away, with plenty of room to spare, in the hold of the *Shenandoah*. On her maiden voyage, a fast one for the stormy season, from San Francisco to Havre, she carried a cargo of 5,000 tons of grain. The dead-

weight capacity of only the biggest steam freighters is above that figure.

When the wind is aft the *Shenandoah* spreads 11,000 yards of duck. Her three forward lower masts are 90 feet long and 38 inches in diameter. Her topmasts are 56 feet long, and the topgallant masts are 68 feet long, making a total height from deck to truck of 217 feet. Her interior is as handsome as that of a first-class transatlantic steamship. It is finished in quartered oak and is carved in designs suggestive of the sea.

But the American wooden ship—even the storm-defying *Shenandoah*—is not looked upon with favor by the insurance underwriter. The rate on a wooden vessel is higher than that on a steel one, so the shipper naturally selects the steel hull.

But there are indications that our ships and schooners will not always be of wood. There is earnest talk of building colossal fore-and-afters of steel to enter the foreign carrying trade. The steel vessel has the important advantage of greater safety, and, in proportion to hull, greater dead-weight capacity than the wooden vessel.

Our newly-established iron and steel shipyards will doubtless enter the business of fashioning sailing vessels of steel. The plants of these new yards, created for the construction of our war vessels, will, it is thought, find future employment in helping to re-create our merchant service. Thus the augmentation of our navy has given an impetus to the up-building of our merchant marine.

It is to the steel shipbuilders of the Great Lakes, who have the constructive material almost in their back yards, that many optimistic patriots are looking for the restoration of our fleets to the sea. The most remarkable growth in our shipping has been on the lakes. The tonnage there has more than doubled within the last ten years.

According to the statistics of 1880 there were 896 steam and 1,473 sailing vessels, with a total tonnage of 500,000 in the lake trade. The sailing fleet has not materially increased, but the steam craft now number about 1,700.

The freight traffic on the lakes is enormous and the profits are large, notwithstanding the shortness of the season, which practically ends at the beginning of the winter.

The explanation of the prosperity of lake shipowners may be found in the cheapness

* The *Rappahannock* was burned near Juan Fernandez in November.

of shipbuilding along the lakes. A naval expert has declared, after a careful study of steamship building in England and in the lake region, that the lake-built steamships have greater cargo capacity in proportion to tonnage and cost less in construction than the foreign-built steamers.

The ambitious builders of the West have shown that they are in earnest about competing with England for the privilege of moving the treasured products of the Republic across the seas. They sent, not long ago, from a shipyard at West Bay City, Michigan, to the Atlantic coast, by way of the lakes, the Welland Canal, and the St. Lawrence River, two freight steamships measuring over 2,000 tons. These vessels, being 289 feet long, or too long for the locks of the canal, were taken apart and floated through in sections. They were put together again at Montreal and sailed for New York.

The names of these western pioneers that came east to teach the Atlantic coast shipper a lesson in profitable freight carrying may be worth remembering. They are the *Keeweenaw* and the *Mackinaw*, and they belong to the Saginaw Steamship Company. They are plying between New York, San Francisco, and foreign ports.

Western shipbuilders have not limited themselves to old-fashioned models, whose high wall-like sides receive the full battering force of tempestuous seas. The American Steel Barge Company has sent from its yards at West Superior, Michigan, a vessel—now making her second voyage to Europe—which may revolutionize shipbuilding, the *Charles W. Wetmore*, a whaleback cargo steamship of 1,075 tons, capable of carrying nearly three times her tonnage in dead weight.

On her maiden voyage from Duluth to Liverpool she was laden with 95,000 bushels of wheat, and, although she had a stormy time of it, when her hatches were lifted at Liverpool the footprints of the trimmers at Montreal were still visible in the wheat. She burned only 12 tons of coal a day and made an average speed of 10 knots an hour. She has a draught of only 15½ feet when laden. The ordinary steamship cannot carry 3,000 tons of dead weight on less than a draught of 25 feet.

The lighter the draught of a steamship the smaller the charge for pilotage. The *Wetmore* saves not only in fees for pilotage, but in the infinitely more important item of coal.

Her economy in coal is due also to her light draught, for the less submerged hull there is, the less resistance there is, and the less power is required to drive the vessel.

The whaleback is a mastless steel craft with a flat-bottomed hull, cigar-shaped at both ends. The sides gracefully "tumble home" above the water line, so that her visible hull is "very like a whale" indeed.

When a lofty wave strikes the incurving sides of a whaleback it rushes athwart the deck, over hermetically sealed hatches, and dissipates itself in harmless spray. When the same kind of wave hits the towering sides of a liner of to-day, the ship trembles under the stroke and is driven almost on her beam ends. The reactionary roll is frequently so great that passengers are dangerously hurt by being thrown from their berths or chairs. Heavy seas often leap over the tall steel sides of the biggest liners and break on board with fatal effect.

The success of the freight whaleback has naturally led her constructors to believe that the passenger whaleback is not wholly a nautical dream. It is the talk of shippers in every port, and especially in those bordering our fresh water inland seas. Many think the whaleback is the type with which we may compete with electric Liverpool lines like the *Teutonic* and the *City of Paris* for the ocean passenger traffic.

The passenger whaleback has not been launched, but she is designed, and, inside of two years, she may be triumphantly weaving with her twin, or perhaps, triple, screws a hawser of foam that will make the wakes of former flyers seem shadowy indeed. Her hull plan will be much like that of the cargo whaleback, which is incomparable for safety.

Comfort and speed are the next considerations. The latter will be attained by triple-expansion engines of enormous power; the former by a superstructure, containing light and airy staterooms, on steel turrets rising from the hull. This superstructure will be supported on its outward edges by rows of steel pillars, and will resemble the quarters of passengers on our palatial river steamboats. The steel turrets will be placed at such intervals that the action of the seas against their arched surface will be not worth consideration.

Even if the whaleback should turn out not to be the American steamship of the future, there are vast possibilities in the whaleback freighter. It may be used not only as a steam-

ship, but, as it is now in service on the lakes, as a barge.

It has been proposed that steel whaleback barges be towed across the ocean in strings of two and three. One of the big towing steamships, the *Saturn*, has a cargo capacity of 3,000 tons. With three steel barges of the same carrying capacity behind her, she could take to the Liverpool market the enormous cargo of 12,000 tons, or double that usually carried by the largest British freight steamships.

That this project is entirely practicable is proven by the experience of the *Saturn* in towing coal barges along our coasts. She has been for a year engaged in this immensely profitable business.

The eastern coal barge, in nearly all cases, is made of the repaired hulk of one of our once famous sailing packets. The biggest of the barges was originally the iron steamship *Lone Star*. She was burned and sunk and then raised and re-created into a barge. She carries 3,000 tons of coal, and is generally towed with two other barges laden with 2,000 tons each, from Newport News to Boston. The *Saturn* carries 3,000 tons in her own hold, thus making the total quantity transported about 10,000 tons.

This Herculean task of towing is accomplished with an expenditure of about 23 tons of coal a day, which gives the *Saturn* a speed of about 8 knots an hour. The speed of the average ocean freighter is not more than about 10 knots, and she carries less than a third of the cargo that two barges and a towing steamship like the *Saturn* could take across the sea.

From this comparison it may be readily in-

ferred that there ought to be profit—possibly to the extent of twenty per cent—in ocean transportation by barges. The natural conservatism of shippers may keep them from soon trying the experiment of sending their goods to foreign markets in this novel way; but that the experiment will be tried, and that it will prove satisfactory, the owners of the two towing steamships are confident.

From the progress of the last year it may be said that the outlook for our foreign carrying trade has never been so bright. The introduction of two lake-built freighters and two whaleback cargo steamships into the transatlantic service indicates the development of a venturesome spirit in our ship-owners. It is this spirit that made our merchant marine glorious before iron and steel superseded wood in the making of mighty ships. Capital has been kept out of American vessels, it is said, because of the small returns yielded by the investment. It would seem that either the returns are getting larger, or the inshore fields of profitable investment are becoming more circumscribed, thus compelling capital to seek the sea.

The ventures of the daring dwellers by the Great Lakes in salt-water enterprise will, it is believed, stimulate the eastern coast ship-builders to greater industry. Four new freight steamships for the transatlantic trade in a single year would not mean much to the British merchant marine; to ours it means the beginning of our rejuvenation. Who knows but that another decade may find the stars and stripes snapping over the taffrails of a superb fleet of steamships carrying our products to the remotest markets of the world?

THE PRESENT POSITION OF GERMAN POLITICS.

BY GEORGE WHEELER HINMAN, PH. D.

GERMANY, with her half constitutional, half mediæval form of government, with her reigning house of traditions at once absolutistic and democratic, and with her peculiar people, simultaneously the most highly educated and the most childishly patriotic in the world, is a poor subject for the universal theorist in civil government. Most men, measures, and situations in German politics to-day are enig-

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matical when considered from the English, American, or French point of view. No correct judgment of their significance is possible without a slight knowledge of the history of the crucial questions on which the voters and their representatives have taken sides in the last few years. Many of these questions have been answered so recently from the throne that the emperor's voice still resounds through the empire.

Four measures have occupied most of the attention of German politicians for many years. They are the expulsion of the Jesuits, the confiscation of ecclesiastical revenues during the conflict between Prince Bismarck and the pope, the high tariff on grain, and the attempt of Parliament to eradicate the Social Democracy by law. The expulsion of the Jesuits and the confiscation of church revenues were the most conspicuous elements of the *Kulturkampf* and, together with the legislation against the Social Democrats, constituted the most important part of the political program with which Prince Bismarck rose and fell.

All three issues have been virtually laid to rest. The corn laws, however, are still the source of constant embarrassment to the government and bitter discontent among the people, and in the Reichstag will be the issue upon which the government must make its hardest fight.

The expulsion of the Jesuit orders from the empire was one of the first acts of Bismarck in his prolonged attempt to break the power of the pope in Germany. The confiscation of ecclesiastical revenues was an effort to starve into submission the Prussian clergy who upheld the Vatican in the conflict. The result of these and similar measures was to drive the Roman Catholic deputies into persistent opposition to the government both in domestic and foreign politics.

"You have mobilized against the state; you are the enemies of the empire," shouted Prince Bismarck to the Clericals in the Reichstag. No abuse was too rank, no malice too poisonous for the use of the Clericals against the chancellor. Kullmann, a Roman Catholic fanatic, shot at Prince Bismarck in Ems and during an anarchic scene in Parliament the chancellor charged the responsibility for the crime upon Windhorst and his followers. The empire was in chaos. The fanatic Roman Catholic press was put in the straight jacket that the chancellor always kept ready for the "newspaper reptiles." Its supporters were harassed and its editors were imprisoned. Bishops were without bishops and parishes without priests. The empire's Roman Catholics ran wild, without pastors and without patriotism, until the old emperor called out in his distress, "Give me back my people."

That Bismarck tried to answer this call, that he crawled back a good part of the way

over which he once strode in defiance, and that he relentlessly dismissed the men who had done his will, were of little avail. The Clericals exulted, but were not placated, and the genial Ludwig Windhorst died rejoicing that he had caused the fall of the maker of modern Germany.

Bitterness and disloyalty of all German Roman Catholics were the first heritage of William II. and Chancellor von Caprivi from the Man of Iron. They have obliterated both. Bismarck's minister of public worship, Von Gossler, was dismissed almost a year ago, the Prussian Landtag voted last spring to return to the dioceses the \$4,000,000 of church income confiscated by the state under Bismarck, and the present Reichstag will probably allow the return of the Jesuits.

At the Roman Catholic Congress in Dantzig last summer Freiherr von Schorlemer-Alst, a Clerical leader, proclaimed thus the patriotism of the party in answer to rumors that the Vatican was coquetting with the Franco-Russian Alliance: "If ever an arrogant enemy cross the borders of our land, we Catholics will stand shoulder to shoulder in the first line of battle to defend the greatness and integrity of the nation and monarchy."

Count Ballestrem, Windhorst's successor, made a similar declaration, including a warning to the pope that German Clericals were Germans first and then Roman Catholics. Both speeches were cheered almost unanimously throughout Catholic Germany.

The people whom Prince Bismarck estranged from the throne have been won back. The echoes of the *Kulturkampf* will be hardly heard this winter in the Reichstag, which so often resounded in the days of the old *régime* with the cries of "Traitor," "Oppressor," and "Slanderer." The Clerical party with its 107 votes has ceased to belong to the through-thick-and-thin opposition.

Another embarrassing heritage of William II. and his chancellor from the old *régime* was the growing strength of the Social Democracy. The history of the development of this factor in German politics is too familiar to need much elucidation. Organized on national lines by Ferdinand Lassalle, a patriot as well as an agitator, the party was driven by persecution from one extreme position to another, until its annals were blackened with treason, anarchy, and attempted regicide.

In the years of repression 350 working-

men's societies were disbanded, 235 periodicals were suppressed, 1,000 pamphlets and books were forbidden and confiscated wherever found, 900 men were banished from their homes, and scores of persons were held in jail for many months without a hearing in court.

Under such treatment the party vote swelled from 437,000 to 1,427,000 and 35 disloyal Social Democrats sat in the Reichstag to rail against the government's measures and to be railed at by the government's chancellor. These 35 deputies and their 1,427,000 followers rejoiced openly in every misfortune of the government and defended the opinions of Germany's foreign foes. They even proclaimed their opposition to the Frankfurt treaty, ostentatiously professed their sympathy for France and Frenchmen, and indorsed in deed if not in word the sentiment of their leader, that a "patriot was a rascal."

Such was the condition of affairs when Emperor William II. spoke to Prince Bismarck, shortly before the expiration of the repressive laws, his famous words: "Leave the Social Democrats to me; I will manage them." Events of the last few months show that this promise has been redeemed.

But shortly before the last Social Democratic congress, Vollmar, leader of the South German wing of the party, surprised all Europe by declaring himself for the Triple Alliance and warning his colleagues against persistently opposing the government. The policy of the new emperor, he said, had rendered it possible for the party to abandon its attitude of unconditional antagonism and to manifest its loyalty to the Fatherland by supporting in parliament measures calculated to benefit the German laborer.

Early in last October, Bebel, who is the energy of the Social Democratic management as Liebknecht is its brains, said before thousands in a political meeting in Berlin: "German Social Democrats wish and ask for a reconciliation with France, and I regret the emperor's declaration that we will leave 42,000,000 persons on the battle field before we will see a single stone of one of our fortresses taken from us. Nevertheless, in the next war the Social Democrats must fight for our existence as a nation and as a party."

That the old-time violence of the rank and file of the party also has undergone a change was shown on last May 1 when, during the riot and bloodshedding in other continental countries, the Social Democrats in Germany

merely planned picnics for the following Sunday.

Emperor William II. inaugurated the policy with which he has accomplished such remarkable results, by issuing his labor rescripts and organizing the International Labor Conference in Berlin. Then the Reichstag passed the workingmen's protective bill which prohibits Sunday labor, forbids the employment of children under fourteen years in factories, reduces the working hours of women, and provides for innumerable improvements in the sanitary arrangements of factories.

In the Prussian Landtag the tax reform, long promised by Prince Bismarck, was accomplished at last. The principal features of this measure are: reduction of the taxation of small incomes; drawbacks for taxpayers with children under fourteen years; heavier taxation in general of the funded than the unfunded income. The inheritance tax proposed by the government was defeated. Many reforms of communal administration to the benefit of agricultural laborers and peasants and to the detriment of great landowners, were also pushed through, despite the bitterest opposition of the Conservatives, aided by Prince Bismarck at a distance.

These measures and the ideas back of them were parts of the emperor's new policy. They cut away much of the ground on which Social Democratic agitators had stood, and they brought back to the ways of loyalty thousands more of the German subjects who had been driven off by Prince Bismarck. The Social Democratic leaders were compelled to retreat from their position of antagonism for antagonism's sake, and, although far from docile, it is no longer true, as it was for almost twenty years, that they may be relied on to cast invariably their thirty-five votes with the opposition.

The corn laws are the fourth embarrassing heritage of the present German government from Prince Bismarck. They are still the center of the hottest political contention in the empire and will be discussed in this session of the Reichstag in connection with the Zollverein of the Triple Alliance. They secured to Prince Bismarck the unwavering support of great conservative and national liberal landowners and if the ex-chancellor appears in the Reichstag this winter, he will do so to defend them against the encroachments proposed in the Zollverein treaty.

The corn laws may have served Prince Bismarck's political purposes well enough, but their economic results have been to cause tremendous suffering among the poor of Germany and to enrich great landowners. That German agriculture has been put on a firmer basis, however, in accordance with the avowed intentions of the framers of the agrarian laws, no one acquainted with the facts can maintain conscientiously. In 1878, 2,216,000 hectares were planted with wheat in Germany and 5,939,000 with rye; in 1889, 2,322,000 with wheat and 5,801,000 with rye. The product to the hectare in 1878 was 1.44 German tons of wheat and 1.17 of rye; in 1889, 1.21 German tons of wheat and .92 of rye.

These figures show, if they show anything, that German agriculture has shrunk rather than risen under these laws, although they are estimated to cost the German people annually \$55,000,000 in higher prices for grain. Moreover, the importation of wheat and rye swelled from 930,000 German tons in 1879 to 1,281,700 in 1888. In 1889 in the protected German market wheat was sold for 191.64 marks a German ton, while in Dantzic untaxed wheat was sold for 137.54 marks.

The suffering of the laboring population in the rural districts has been and is extreme, as is shown by constant appeals for help from the half-fed families of Silesia and the starving weavers in the Eulengebirge.

For purely political reasons the present government has been unable to get rid of this incubus on the German people, but it has done its best in the treaty negotiations with Austria to provide for the importation of Hungarian grain under a modified tariff. That such a reduction is the proverbial half loaf to the Freetraders, or *Freisinnige*, and the Social Democrats, is self-evident. The National Liberals in their last convention refused, as is their wont, to define their attitude to economic questions, and the party will probably split on the parliamentary vote. The Clericals probably will be secured for the treaty. The Conservatives will fight it, tooth and nail.

Prince Bismarck through a pamphlet entitled *Ablehnen oder Annehmen*, written by his literary aid, Lothar Bucher, has made recently a violent attack on the proposed treaty. Prince Bismarck has said that he would appear in the Reichstag only when some great question of national weal or woe was to be settled, and as such a question he has designated in *Ablehnen oder Annehmen* the com-

mercial negotiations of the Triple Alliance. Should the expressed wishes of his best friends prove of no avail, therefore, the world will be treated probably to the sad spectacle of the greatest German statesman leading a forlorn hope of Conservative and National Liberal landowners in an attempt to thwart the government's purpose to relieve the suffering of its people and to bind together more closely the peace powers of Central Europe.

Will Prince Bismarck return to power? This question has been asked frequently within the last few weeks, especially in consideration of rumors of Chancellor von Caprivi's retirement. In all the field of European politics no possibility is more remote.

"It was fortunate that Prince Bismarck was dismissed," said Deputy Bamberger recently; "but that it was fortunate, was unfortunate." Few persons in Germany to-day speak more favorably of Prince Bismarck than did Bamberger. All feel the sadness of the situation; all recognize their debt to the Titanic arm and mailed hand that in many years of doubt and trial held in check the chafing enemies of the new empire. He made Germany, and in the shadow of his mighty form the work of his hands grew strong and great. But when the days of imminent danger were gone, Germany groaned under the weight of the Titanic arm and the mailed hand, and there was a sigh of relief when both were laid to rest.

*Der Mohr hat seine Schuldigkeit gethan,
Der Mohr kann gehen.*

Moreover, as Emperor William has said, the present chancellor has shown himself to be at once "courteous, clever, and loyal to the throne." That he will be dismissed soon is exceedingly improbable despite the prevalent rumors. Should he go, however, Herr Miquel, Prussian minister of finance, who framed and brought through the Landtag the tax-reform laws, would be the most likely candidate for the chancellorship. To him the present emperor once said: "You are my man; you express my views"; and in many ways William II. has shown that his opinion is still unaltered.

Persons accustomed to weighing foreign statesmen on American scales have wasted a good deal of breath in dilating upon the young emperor's anachronistic tendencies toward absolutism. The young emperor comes by such tendencies by right of inheritance,

for even the most benevolent of former Hohenzollern sovereigns clung fast to the belief that he reigned "by the grace of God," and tried to act in accordance with this belief. The Great Elector and the Great Frederick were, in a way, as absolute as Louis XIV. With their absolutism they united, however, pains-taking care for the protection of the weak against the strong of their kingdom. "We are the kings of the poor," is an old Hohenzollern proverb.

The present emperor believes in these traditions with all his heart, and, while ruling with a strong hand, has omitted nothing to prove that he is a workingman's emperor, as the Great Frederick was a beggar's king.

In his speech from the throne on June 27, 1888, the emperor said: "The legal status of my rights, so long as it remains unaltered, suffices to assure the proper amount of monarchical influence to the government," and no one can say truthfully that he has tried to extend these rights.

He is accused of having usurped the chancellorship; but even so, he did less than

Prince Bismarck, who virtually usurped a throne. The truth, however, is that the emperor has not usurped the chancellorship, but has rescued from it prerogatives temporarily relinquished to it by his grandfather.

Emperor William II. and his chancellor have never violated the constitution as did Prince Bismarck. They have never ridiculed the Reichstag as did Prince Bismarck. With the fall of the Iron Chancellor, came the end of that period when a German minister would say to representatives of the German people: "You do not know how I laugh at the German Reichstag when I am alone"; or: "If you do not pass this bill I will send you home like a lot of naughty schoolboys."

Throughout the last session of the Reichstag and Landtag, and during the first few days of this session of the Reichstag, the relations between throne and parliament have been unmarred by indignity or open crimination or recrimination, despite the fact that the reform measures in the Landtag met with the bitterest opposition of two powerful parties.

SPAIN, CUBA, AND THE UNITED STATES.

BY ROLLO OGDEN.

IF any one imagines that Spain would sell or peaceably relinquish Cuba on any conceivable terms, he is dreaming idle dreams. As a decayed noble family might be supposed to cling to its last manor-house, so Spain jealously clutches the single pearl left to her of the once splendid and jeweled circlet of her American possessions.

All Spanish political parties are absolutely at one on this subject. Republican Spain in 1873 sent men and treasure to Cuba to put down rebellion, just as lavishly and unhesitatingly as monarchical Spain had done before and did again after the republic fell. The Liberal premier defiantly declared in the Cortes that the United States had not money enough to buy Cuba, and only a few months ago his Conservative successor, Cánovas, woke the vociferous enthusiasm of the Spanish Senate by asserting that Spain would spend her last dollar and send her last fighting man to death before she would consent to the loss of the "Pearl of the Antilles."

That Spain has chosen to show her love

for the "ever-faithful isle" by governing it in the most mistaken and deplorable manner is, of course, entirely evident to any one inheriting the Anglo-Saxon idea of good government. But the only fair way of judging the case is to apply the standards of Spanish political ideas. Tested by them, it would be hard to make out that the mother country's government of Cuba has been any less enlightened or more onerous than that exercised over her own sons in the Peninsula. Frightful taxation and incompetent and dishonest administration are things that Spaniards have had to suffer from as well as Cubans. The political hardships of the latter, it is true, have been heightened by the fact of their being colonists; but, nevertheless, their treatment has been rigidly in accordance with the traditional Spanish idea of the just and proper way to treat colonists.

In the Spanish mind a colony, far from being conceived of as a new home for the independent planting and development of Spanish civilization, as a place where love of

country should spring up both in the local sense and in an inclusive affection for the "greater Spain," of which colonists as well as peninsulars should feel themselves citizens—far from all this, a colony has been regarded as solely and exclusively a feeder to the prosperity of the mother country, a community to be ruled not primarily for its own immediate good, but so as most to enrich the country to which its supreme allegiance and unquestioning obedience are due.

It is this inherited and historical idea of the proper functions of a colony and the correct way to govern it, and not any peculiar perverseness or cruelty on the part of the Spanish government, that has led to the prolonged misgovernment from which Cuba has undoubtedly suffered all these years. And the gradual improvement to be noted of late years, as we shall see, in the administration of the affairs of the island, goes hand in hand with the political changes and advances to be observed in Spain herself. The growth of Spanish Republicanism, which yet plays a great part in the public life of Spain, despite the disastrous failure of the untimely republic of 1873, unquestionably represents, while it stimulates, a truer conception of civil rights and of the sphere of government. The extension of the suffrage and the guarantee of trial by jury in Spain, have had their analogues in the abolition of slavery and the broadening of representation in Cuba.

It is important to keep these facts in mind in order to escape the vulgar error of supposing either that Spain has one standard of justice for Spaniards and quite another one for Cubans, or that no improvement whatever is to be looked for in Spanish colonial methods. Spain has been terribly slow in learning the lesson which England had forced upon her in connection with her American colonies, but she is learning it, and, considering what was her policy of even a generation ago, has, for her, made wonderful advances in applying it.

The United States can scarcely be blamed for looking upon Cuba as a country of splendid possibilities strangely neglected, or for believing that under the stimulus of American capital and American methods of government, it would develop as marvelously as that other Spanish possession, California, has done.

Cuba has a soil of unexampled fertility, which has enabled her sugar planters, even

with slovenly and antiquated methods, to hold their own in the markets of the world despite the increasing competition of bountygrown beet sugar.

For the culture of tobacco, the island has areas that yield a product not to be rivaled anywhere in the world, apparently, so that the suggestion of an old cigar-lover that there must be a special tobacco-microbe in the *Vuelta Abajo* district to give Havana cigars their special flavor, may pass as a working hypothesis.

The island has unexplored and unworked mineral resources. This is well shown in the recent development of the iron-ore industry. It had long been known in a general way that there was iron of good quality to be found in the hills on the southern coast; yet it was only four or five years ago that its mining and exporting were undertaken. American capital was attracted to the enterprise, with such good effect that in 1890 \$875,000 worth of iron ore was shipped from Santiago de Cuba, and the value of the output for the current year is estimated at \$1,500,000. The iron is mined principally by the Pennsylvania Steel Works Company, of Bethlehem, Pa., and a small fleet of vessels is kept busy bringing in the Cuban ores, which are found most valuable for mixing with the American product.

Cuba has an area of some 43,000 square miles, of which only about one tenth is under cultivation. That statement alone is enough to show the backward development of the island. Some estimate that as much as one third of the island is as yet totally unexplored—standing in impenetrable virgin forest such as grew in tropical luxuriance at the time when Columbus first landed.

Sugar growing and tobacco culture are the two main agricultural pursuits. The earliest sugar plantation dates back to about a hundred years after the discovery, and since that time it has been the leading industry. The natural advantages for the growing of sugar cane are so great that Cuba could almost supply the world, were her vast stretches of unoccupied soil brought under cultivation. As it is, her hills contain mineral treasures of immense value scarcely touched as yet, and her forests hide riches of rare and useful woods against which the ax has not come up. In short, Cuba is an island of immense natural possibilities which have been given but the most meager development.

Looking for the causes of this backward condition, we come first of all upon the mistaken Spanish system of government. The original colonial theory of Spain was absolute prohibition of trade with any other country. That was the fetter laid for years upon the commercial expansion of Cuba. Later came a modification, grudgingly made, which allowed the colonists to sell their products outside of Spain, but still forbade them to buy their supplies from any source but their own mother country. It was about 1814 that the system was further modified so as to permit the Cubans to patronize other foreign markets than the loving but exorbitant ones of Barcelona and Santander. Even then, however, and down until very recent times, Spanish commerce was given an immense advantage over all other foreign trade in Cuba, through discriminating duties and other devices which almost forced the Havana merchants to buy their goods in Spain, and to exact the correspondingly higher prices from their customers.

Such a long-continued and fatal system of commercial restrictions would be too much for even a hardy and enterprising race to overcome, and it must be admitted that the Cubans are neither hardy nor enterprising. A good proof of this is seen in the fact that nearly all the profitable business of the country is in the hands of foreigners—Spaniards and Germans. Indeed, Cuba has always been the fabled land of wealth from which, in Spanish stories, the boy who went away poor comes back a nabob, very much as the emigrant of '49 brought back his untold wealth from the placers of California. Again and again in Pereda's novels and tales, for instance, does the poor but energetic Santanderino of other days return to Spain an "Indian" with an endless bank account to draw upon for the relief of the oppressed or the punishment of villains.

In this matter fiction stands for fact. It is historically true that the small number of Spaniards in Cuba have an importance and possess a property far beyond their proportionate share, and this not in consequence of governmental favors, though those, of course, are not wanting, but owing to sheer ability and industry. Before them the less resolute and more indolent Cubans give way.

This predominance of foreigners among the great landholders and planters of Cuba was heightened by the calamities of the civil war,

or rebellion as the Spaniards call it, which broke out in 1868 and raged with more or less violence for ten years. In the course of that mournful struggle the planters who were of native birth and sympathized with the popular movement lost their all. Their property was confiscated and sold, passing into the hands of Spaniards and other foreigners.

This is one great reason of the failure of the various attempts since made to throw off the Spanish yoke; the insurrection of to-day has not the sinews of war that the rebellion of 1868 could command. Indeed, the great bulk of the ardent Cuban patriots, as they call themselves, is to-day in the United States—in New York and Florida. Here they hold their anniversary meetings in memory of the "glorious cry of Yara" (the beginning of the revolution), pass their flaming resolutions, and read their inevitable poems.

One of their poets, the estimable Francisco Sellén, has included some of these outpourings of the revolutionary muse in the volumes of poetry he has published in New York. One of them is entitled: "To Cuba, in the Days of her Humiliation." It begins with an apostrophe to the "sad Niobe of the western seas," and concludes with a hope that "the steel again may flash in the air and make thy oppressor tremble." Another poem beginning "Sleep, heroes of Cuba," is dedicated to "the memory of the martyrs of the Cuban revolution."

But such expressions are almost entirely confined to Cubans in this country. In Cuba itself a revolutionary party can scarcely be said to exist. This is not alone due to the fact that agitation for separation from Spain would there be severely repressed. It is rather the result, partly of the crushing out of the spirit of rebellion by the disaster of the fruitless ten years' struggle, and partly of the growing liberality of Spain's treatment of the colony. It must be remembered that there was a revolution in Spain in 1868, as well as a rebellion in Cuba. Isabella and her régime were made an end of in the Peninsula, and the era of more enlightened government set in.

Cuba has not failed to reap the benefit of the greater enlightenment and liberality which have been shown in the conduct of Spanish affairs in the past score of years; the administration of the colony has been more and more marked by a spirit of conciliation and concession. The Spanish garrison of 40,000 to 60,000 troops has been successively cut

down until now there are probably not more than 5,000—though it is true, there is a sort of militia force, numbering 40,000 to 50,000 which can be called out in cases of emergency.

The old restrictive press law, though still left on the statute books, is no longer enforced even in pretense. There is the freest access to the courts. Even a hostile observer has recently confessed that there has been, on the part of the Spanish government and the governor general of Cuba, "a deliberate effort to reconcile the people to Spanish rule, and to efface the terrible memories of a civil war conspicuous for atrocity and savagery."

Native political aspirations find a rallying point in the Autonomist party. This organization stands, not for separation from Spain, but for a measure of home rule such as Canada and other English colonies enjoy. Then, besides minor groups, there is the Constitutional Union party, which advocates simply an extension of the present system of Cuban representation in Spanish Cortes. It points with satisfaction to the very considerable increase both of Senators and Deputies allowed by the recent electoral law, as well as to the widening of the suffrage.

The Autonomists find a grievance, however, in the fact that the manumitted negroes are not allowed to vote. To emphasize their protest against this injustice, as they consider it, they refrained entirely from voting in the last general elections for the Cortes. Notwithstanding this, some seven or eight of their prominent men were elected in various districts, so that they are not without representation in the Spanish Legislature.

According to the census of 1887, Cuba has a population of 1,631,687. The figures ten years before were 1,521,684, thus showing a gain of but 67.3 per cent in a decade. Of the total, negroes and mulattoes were reckoned at 492,249, and Chinese at 43,811. The sparseness of the inhabitants in relation to the area of Cuba is seen in the fact that the density of population is but 13.3 per square kilometer. This is much less than in the case of any other West Indian country, except Santo Domingo, where it is 11; in the other Spanish possession, Puerto Rico, it is 87. The colored element is apparently not increasing at the same rate as the white; though the returns and estimates of the census on that subject are not entirely conclusive.

Illiteracy attains alarming proportions. No less a percentage of the population than

76.30 can neither read or write. Nor can it be said that this appalling condition of things, equaled in no other part of the civilized world, is wholly due to the colored element; the illiteracy of the latter is, of course, extreme, yet that of the whites is 64.89 per cent. As would naturally be expected from such a showing, the school facilities of the island are most inadequate. The number of schools in the whole country is but one for every 2,105 inhabitants, supported at a total cost of only \$606,761. The only comfort to be found in these figures is in the fact that they represent some improvement over former years. Indeed, the Spanish government has worked out on paper a fairly generous scheme of educational reform and enlargement for Cuba, but lack of funds has, unfortunately, prevented its realization.

The budget of Cuba for the year 1890-91 called for expenditures of \$25,446,810, of which \$10,447,267 comes under the head of "General Account," including the expenses of the Spanish minister for the colonies, pensions, etc.; \$1,065,959 is devoted to the judiciary and the clergy, \$6,229,427 to war and \$1,299,220 to the navy, and the remainder to the treasury, the interior department, and public works. The income was estimated at \$25,596,441, to be derived principally from direct taxes, \$5,818,600, customs, \$14,971,300; and lotteries, \$3,104,026.

It is easy to see how important the revenue from customs duties is from an administrative standpoint, and how grave are the consequences to Cuban finance of the reciprocity arrangement with the United States, which is certain to cut down the receipts from imports in a serious degree. The Spanish government proposed to the colonists to make up the deficit by increased taxes on real estate, but awakened so violent an opposition that the project was abandoned, and the finances were left to take care of themselves.

Granting for the moment, the impossible, and supposing that the United States could secure the annexation of Cuba, what would be the advantages or drawbacks involved for either country in such a step? Taking the advantages first, it is probable that Cuba, under our government, would speedily attain a great physical and commercial development, and it is also probable that in the long run, she would make great gain in the way of more equitable government and educational opportunities; while the United States would reap

an added prosperity from the new prosperity of its new possession.

But on the other hand, the figures cited above respecting the mass of ignorance in Cuba, with all its well-known attendant evils, are enough to show how grave and undesirable a responsibility would come upon this country were it to acquire control of Cuba. We have already on our hands problems enough of that sort, without desiring to inherit more.

One can see, moreover, how profound would be the danger both to Cuba and to us of a transfer of government. It would be a new and congenial soil for corrupt politics to strike root in, while Cuban interests would be so small in any representative body embracing her delegates with those of the whole United States that they could hope for fair and adequate recognition only through political intrigue, or else through a system of local control for which the island is manifestly unfitted.

The true interests of either country seem to

demand the continuance of the present condition of things. Commercially, Cuba is already an appanage of the United States, and is certain to become so more and more. Politically, she is better off as she is, or, at least, as she may have fair hopes of becoming, under Spanish rule. The Spanish system of law and administration is the only one with which she is familiar. The predominant element among her leading men is Spanish. Mr. Froude estimates that there are ten times as many Spaniards in Cuba, as there are English and Scotch in all the West Indies.

With these great features of her social and legal condition what they are, Cuba's best future seems to lie in striving for those reforms which Spain has been granting her, one after the other, for the last ten years, and which she will continue to give in the future, even if grudgingly.

For the United States, meanwhile, the situation seems to be summed up in the simple saying that we could not get Cuba if we wanted to, and would not want to if we could.

HOW A BILL PRESENTED IN CONGRESS BECOMES A LAW.

BY GEORGE HAROLD WALKER.

PEOPLE sitting in the galleries of the National Capitol and looking down upon the Senate or House of Representatives at work are often puzzled to know what is going on, so rapidly does business appear to be transacted. They hear the presiding officer say something, a clerk reads, some member has a word or two to say, then the formula is repeated again and again every few minutes. Only those who have become accustomed to the proceedings can closely follow the course of legislation as it is enacted by the national lawmakers.

Under the rules all bills as soon as introduced are referred by the presiding officer to the appropriate standing committee, and the majority find their greatest obstacle in the committee room. Thousands of bills are introduced in every Congress which never afterwards see the light. In each succeeding year the number increases. In the Fifty-first Congress 5,130 bills and 169 joint resolutions were introduced in the Senate, and 14,033 bills and 298 joint resolutions in the House of Representatives, or a total of nearly 20,000.

For some years past the average number of bills and joint resolutions that have been passed by Congress has ranged from 7 to less than 10 per cent of the number introduced, and in one or two years the percentage has been considerably lower.

The cost of printing all this mass of proposed legislation is enormous and on the increase. Much of the printing is certain waste; in few bills or reports is there general interest, and thousands of copies are sold as waste paper and used for wrapping by proprietors of stalls in the city markets.

Every new member feels it incumbent upon himself to do something that will distinguish himself as a legislator. He has a new idea in his head, some "ism" that he would foster, or he cherishes a scheme to make himself "solid" with the voters at home by getting into the appropriation bills something to improve the rivers and harbors in his district or erect a public building in one of the principal towns therein. If a member of the Senate, he may get it under way without trouble.

In that branch a call is made every day for those who have bills prepared, but in the House of Representatives, because of the much greater membership, it is necessary to limit the time. The introduction of bills of a public or general nature is allowable only on Mondays. The states are called in their alphabetical order, Alabama first and Wyoming last, and where a particular commonwealth, such as the state of New York or Pennsylvania, sends a large delegation of Representatives, there is a struggle among them for precedence in being recognized by the Speaker. The reason for this may be understood when it is stated that bills are numbered consecutively as presented, and a committee, in considering a batch of bills before it, begins with the first in number.

It was formerly the rule to introduce all kinds of bills during the call of states, and several days were consumed in the opening of a session, but a rule was adopted whereby private bills were to be deposited in a box located for that purpose at the clerk's desk. The saving of time has been very marked.

It is an old parliamentary law that all bills should be read three times before the final vote on their passage, but the tendency of modern practice is in the direction of less formality. There is in the practice of Congress really no second reading of a bill in the original sense of the term. For the first eleven Congresses the rule was that a bill should be read in full when introduced, when the presiding officer asked, "Shall this bill be rejected?" A second reading was afterwards observed with the same formality; then a third, and the final vote.

The custom now is that a bill shall be read by title only when introduced by a member, and this is considered the first and second readings. When it is reported back after examination by a committee and is taken up for consideration a clerk reads it in full, and after debate the presiding officer announces the third reading, which is by title only, unless the reading in full be demanded. In the case of private bills this formality has been even more curtailed; when they are placed in the box it is taken for granted that they have undergone the first and second readings.

The story is told of a Congressman who wrote in great glee to a constituent how he had succeeded in getting a certain bill in which the constituent was personally inter-

ested to a first and second reading, and now all that remained was to secure its third reading and the vote upon its passage. That constituent probably never again heard of his bill.

The Constitution vests in the House of Representatives the power of originating bills concerning taxation or the revenues of the country, but measures of any other class may originate in either branch. Sometimes they are introduced in both simultaneously in the hope of gaining time. In any event, when a bill has passed one branch and is sent to the other for action, the second House may amend the measure as much as it pleases or pass an entirely new bill as a substitute.

What is known as the Bland silver dollar law is an example of this character. The bill prepared by Bland which passed the House of Representatives in 1878 was so radically changed in the Senate at the instance of Senator Allison of Iowa that scarcely one of the original provisions remained.

Another instance is found in the tariff law of 1883. The House of Representatives passed a bill to repeal certain domestic taxation, such as the stamp tax on matches, bank checks, tobacco, etc., and when the measure reached the Senate that body amended it by adding an entire revision of the tariff laws. The opponents of the revision contended that the Senate had usurped the constitutional right of the House to originate revenue bills, but the other side averred that only the right of the Senate to amend a House bill had been exercised.

Committees meet generally once or twice a week, though some assemble oftener, while others scarcely meet at all during a session for the reason that no bills are referred to them. If but one or two bills happen to be referred to a particular committee they will be considered by the members acting together, but if a number are upon the committee clerk's docket the chairman will distribute them for examination among his colleagues. These different members of subcommittees now become the targets of the lobby or the friends and advocates of the particular bills so referred. When the majority of a committee is satisfied as to the merits or demerits of a bill, the chairman or the member most familiar with the measure is by vote designated to report the bill back to the House with a favorable or unfavorable rec-

ommendation. A written report generally accompanies the bill. The measure is then printed and given a place upon one of the calendars.

In the House of Representatives there are three calendars, among which bills are distributed according to whether or not they carry with them an appropriation of public money, or merely benefit some private citizen, such as a pension bill or measure to pay some one's war claim. Bills upon the private calendar are considered in the House of Representatives only on Fridays.

In the Senate there is but one calendar and all measures are given place upon it according to the order in which they are reported. In the latter body it is generally much easier to get through a bill than in the House of Representatives. In the first place there are not so many members striving for precedence, and in the second place "senatorial courtesy" melts away the opposition to all but bills involving political considerations or party doctrines. Bills are sometimes rushed through the Senate, when they are measures of minor importance, as fast as the reading clerks can announce their respective titles, all that the majority require being the favorable report from the committee to which they were referred.

In the House of Representatives progress is much slower. Party feeling generally runs high in this branch and political discussion is aroused upon the slightest pretext, causing delay. Bills that concern taxation or the appropriation of the public moneys must be considered in committee of the whole; in other words, the members resolve that for the time being no other subject but that involved in the bill before them shall be considered. Some member moves that the House resolve itself into a committee of the whole for the purpose of considering this or that bill. If the motion be adopted the Speaker calls a discreet member of his own party to the chair, and the presiding officer is addressed as "Mr. Chairman," instead of "Mr. Speaker." Members retain their seats and there seems to be no difference in the proceedings except the advent of a new presiding officer.

When consideration of a bill in committee of the whole is finished or it is desired that further progress be postponed, a motion is adopted that the committee "rise," in which event the Speaker resumes the gavel and the

chairman who thus gave way to him steps down from the rostrum and reports that the Committee of the Whole House on the State of the Union has had under consideration this or that bill and has come to no resolution thereon, or it recommends that the measure pass, or that it be amended in such and such a manner. In the Senate there is no change of presiding officers and the committee of the whole is only a quasi affair. The House may reject the recommendation of the committee of the whole.

Whenever a bill is considered, the member that reported it from a standing committee is recognized as leader on the floor. When the recent tariff bill was under discussion it will be remembered that Major McKinley was the recognized Republican leader. In general, when any political discussion ensues and a doubt arises as to who should be the leader of the majority party, the chairman of the Committee on Ways and Means is by custom accorded that honor. He generally has an understanding with the Speaker as to what motions he shall offer, and when they shall be offered, and the Speaker, be his range of vision ever so wide or his eyesight ever so strong, usually fails to see that any one else desires to offer a motion.

When the opposition is determined in character it will demand votes upon every dilatory motion offered. Votes, it should be added, are taken in four different ways: *viva voce*, or the ordinary manner, where the ayes are sounded in concert, followed by the noes; by division, where members rise to their feet and remain standing until counted; by tellers, when the leaders respectively of those in favor of a proposition and the opposition take position in the area in front of the Speaker's rostrum and members voting aye pass first between them and are counted, followed by those voting in the negative; and the system of calling the roll, or yeas and nays, as it is known in Congress, where each member is called by name and responds with his vote.

It is possible to secure all four of these methods of voting upon every motion made, fully an hour being consumed, and thus the power of a determined opposition in provoking delay is hard to overcome. In the last Congress the Republican majority so amended the rules that a limit was placed upon the number of dilatory motions that could be offered, and the practice was stopped of breaking a quorum by refusing to vote.

This plan of "filibustering" began about twenty years ago. Members were regarded as absent if they failed to respond when their names were called, and thus grew the custom of regarding a quorum as not present unless a majority of all the members answered to their names, though every seat in the hall were filled. According to the practice introduced by Speaker Reed, if a sufficient number failed to respond on a roll call, he would count those present and not voting until the requisite quorum had been shown to be present.

In the Senate debate is unlimited, and the opposition to a measure may literally talk it to death. The contest resolves itself into one of physical endurance. This was the case with the elections bill in the last Congress.

The power of a committee in Congress is very great. In all of them the minority is by custom allowed a certain number of places. In the Senate each party holds a caucus and decides which of their number shall be designated to fill the places respectively awarded them, but in the House the Speaker appoints all committees. By his power of appointing committees and designating the chairman of each one, the Speaker of the House of Representatives wields an influence second only to that of the President of the United States. Some regard it as greater power, since the legislative functions of government are of first importance. The Speaker may "recognize" whomsoever he pleases as entitled to the floor. The calendars are generally crowded early in a session, and the practice has come into vogue to allow a part of each day to the different committees, which in turn have a certain time when they may call up for consideration bills deemed by them as meritorious measures. Thus the majority of the members of a committee may press forward or hold back any bill over which it has jurisdiction.

By his power in appointing the Committee on Education it was asserted that a recent Speaker prevented the consideration in the House of Representatives of the Blair educational bill, which had up to that time passed the Senate over and over again. There was understood to be a clear majority in its favor among the membership of the House, but the committee never found it convenient to press that particular measure.

A bill having passed one House is engrossed or copied upon sheets of paper of large size and formally delivered to the other branch of Congress by the secretary or clerk, he an-

nouncing what action has been had upon the measure thus relinquished. It may be that the bill has been before both Houses, but that the second has made amendments in which the first House, now receiving the bill back, is asked to concur. Both branches of Congress must agree as to every provision before any bill can become a law. Whenever an official of one branch of Congress appears at the door of the other on a mission of this kind, the custom is that all business should be immediately suspended and the message received. The same may be said regarding messages from the president of the United States, which are usually delivered by his private secretary or the assistant private secretary. The presence of the messenger at such times is announced by the principal doorkeeper.

When one House amends a bill of the other to which change the first House does not willingly assent, the matter is referred to what is called a committee of conference, composed of three members from each branch of Congress, who are expected to study the subject of the controversy and recommend what is best to be done to settle or compromise the points of disagreement. Whatever the conference committee may recommend, it is a rule that both Houses must either adopt the recommendation as a whole or reject it. No change or amendment is permissible.

The conference committee is a powerful agency in legislation. It was formerly restricted to the points in dispute, but according to the modern practice it may report an entirely new bill if it thinks there is no chance for an agreement upon the points at issue in the pending bill, provided there be a relationship to the original subject in the text of the proposed substitute. The new pension law of June 27, 1890, was the recommendation of a conference committee when the two Houses could not agree as to certain provisions in the bill which had been debated week after week. The land forfeiture act passed by the same Congress was another instance of conference legislation. Probably every law of importance has undergone the pruning process of a conference committee.

After a bill has run the gauntlet of the two Houses it is publicly signed by each presiding officer and taken to the president for his approval. He has ten days, not including Sundays, in which to examine the bill and make up his mind. If nothing is heard from

him by the end of that period the bill becomes a law without his signature. Should he disapprove or veto a bill he sends it back to that branch of Congress in which it originated, stating his reasons in opposition, and then the measure is again referred to a committee and undergoes much the same experience as it did at first, with this important difference, that it must be voted for by at least two thirds of the members of each House in order to overcome objections of the chief magistrate. Only very strong public sentiment will develop sufficient votes to override the president's veto, and this right gives him almost equal power in legislation with Congress. Should the president decline to sign a bill and Congress adjourn before the expiration of the ten-day period, it receives what is popularly known as a "pocket veto."

During the last few days of a session numerous motions are entertained to suspend the rules to pass bills. Unanimous consent is required to do this, and it is amusing to witness the coaxing and cajoling that sometimes result to bring a refractory member to withdraw those potent words, "I object."

At such times everybody is generally in good humor and a spirit of toleration prevails. Funny scenes are witnessed in the efforts of members to get bills passed, enrolled, and signed by the presiding officers and the president before the hour when they know the gavel must fall for the last time. When a measure of public interest is involved it is not uncommon for the doorkeeper to turn back the hands of the official clock. This performance was witnessed three times in the Senate during the last half hour of the last session. in order to allow the

completion of business pending. It mattered not what the watches indicated; the Senate was not going to adjourn until that clock indicated the hour of twelve.

In the grand rush at the close of a Congress the wonder is that great blunders are not made. The enrolling clerks are worked almost beyond endurance. Mistakes will sometimes occur in spite of every precaution. The new tariff law as it came from the conference committee was finally passed just before the close of the first session of the Fifty-first Congress, and in the haste with which the enrolling clerks worked in copying the bill upon parchment they omitted a few sentences from the text. This omission has become the foundation of a suit before the Supreme Court of the United States in which millions of dollars are involved. The mass of importers who opposed the tariff bill claimed that the mistake invalidated the law, since the bill which the president approved and signed was not exactly the measure that Congress passed.

After a bill has been approved by the president, the Department of State causes it to be printed and promulgated. Not the slightest variation is made in printing the new law; even mistakes in spelling and punctuation are closely copied. Many people would think this a foolish practice, but it is a wise practice after all, for were the secretary of state given permission to revise the language of a bill he might make changes in wording and punctuation that would completely overturn the intentions of Congress when the bill was enacted. Millions of dollars are involved and grave constitutional questions arise on the insertion or omission of even a comma.

THE BALKAN STATES AND GREECE.

Translated for "The Chautauquan" from the "Revue Des Deux Mondes."

THERE is not in the world a better observatory from which to obtain a bird's-eye view of the affairs of the Orient than Pesh. It is the geometric point at which the great highways from Constantinople, from Bucharest, from Belgrade, and from Bosna-Serai cross one another. To retreat to this point in order better to study the Balkan peninsula, is to imitate painters who move back in order better to get the perspective of a picture.

And first, standing in view of these half deserted plains, upon this high road to the East abandoned for two centuries to the crescent, it is impossible to forget that Europe has a collective history, and that she forms a body politic whose vicissitudes render her people, willing or not, conjointly responsible to one another. We are now paying the matured debts of our ancestors contracted hundreds of years ago. We are learning, for example, by our own experience, something of what it

coasts to recover the shores of the Mediterranean, laid bare after an invasion of barbarians. It was not with impunity that the Europeans of former ages first broke over the natural boundaries between them and their mother Asia. The whole Eastern Question arose from that error in which the contemporaries of Comnenus and Palæologus certainly had no conscience.

It is necessary to recall the great features of the drama which was played over the heads of kings: Asia in the seventh century took its first revenge against the trespasses of Europe; Europe fled before the scimitar to Poitiers, to Rome; the Greek empire alone held sure footing upon the plains of Anatolia in Asia Minor. Then after the general retreat of the Asiatics, the counts recommenced the slow conquest of Spain, while in the Orient for a short time the tumultuous torrent of the crusaders covered the Asiatic shores. They ought to have foreseen even then the strength and the weakness of new Europe; they might have known then that its people would consolidate at the west and fill out the natural limits to Gibraltar, but that after two or three centuries of effort they would fail in the conquest of the Mediterranean for having neglected Constantinople.

The Greek empire was then the guardian of the straits as is to-day the Ottoman empire. It was necessary either to have sustained this empire or to have replaced it. The age did not know how to do either. They believed in the thirteenth century, while the Roman empire was making a great display at Byzantine, and we of to-day still imagine that it is possible to give to Europe the Bosphorus for a limit. And so geographers trace in red or in blue the frontiers of a continent and think they mark insuperable barriers. But between Sestos and Abydos Europe and Asia regarded each other at a less distance than between the two shores of the Seine River from Honfleur to Harfleur. That the Strait of Gibraltar, the ancient pillars of Hercules, should have been chosen as a frontier can be readily understood; but not the fact that two rival civilizations should have been placed opposite each other at the Dardanelles. The ancient Greeks understood the situation well. Anatolia (Asia Minor) was their stronghold, their refuge, and here even in their decline they could mass forces sufficient to act on the offensive against Constantinople. They were, among Christian

nations, the last politicians of the Orient. After them the Christian world either through indifference or through jealousy allowed the Asiatics to capture and to retain the key of their house—the peninsula of Asia Minor—which with its mountainous eastern barriers forms a natural division between the continents.

Such is the origin of this fault in construction, which on its eastern boundary has made the European edifice to totter. Had the division line been drawn at this natural boundary the Eastern Question would be settled. But so long as the continents are separated by only a little ditch filled with water, while great magnetic currents are circulating from Paris to Jerusalem, from Constantinople to Mecca, so long will the idea of a Europe closed to the Orientals be an idea worthy of our barbarian ancestors.

Europe in the fifteenth century, less foreseeing even than in the thirteenth, was almost entirely ignorant of the Orient. It was for this reason that when Boabdil left the walls of Granada, the grand dukes of Moscow were still paying tribute to the Tartars, and Islam, opening a way into the very heart of Europe, floated the standard of its prophet upon the walls of Buda. Let us stop here a moment and study the history of that time.

We see on one side a nomadic people without a history; they first came into the country after the manner of those hordes that founded all the great Asiatic empires. They adopted the religion of the Arabs. They founded that remarkable military organization, the Janizaries, composed of troops stolen in their childhood from Christian homes, and brought up to know nothing but warfare.

Thus prepared, these Turks threw themselves against Europe, sweeping down upon Constantinople. Their appearance changed everything in this garden of the Greeks. They overthrew frail barriers, destroyed in an hour the work of centuries, and restored a primitive style of living. They moved on over the Balkan peninsula, that old legendary soil of which Greece is the jewel, and Europe no longer saw that land save at a distance and across the smoke of battle which prevented the further encroachment of the Turks.

The dark shadows which then settled down over the beautiful regions of the lower Danube did not begin to lift until in the first

years of the eighteenth century, after the expedition of Prince Eugene. Then the retreat of the Ottoman armies laid bare the outer defenses of the empire. It is interesting to follow in the narratives of travelers, the accounts of the slow resurrection of this old land. The history begins with the letters of Lady Montagu and is not yet finished. One after another different parts of the region emerged from their long period of darkness. Behold Illyria, the plains of Dacia, then Macedonia and Greece. But how the peninsula had changed since the days when Hunyady and Ladislas made their last combats against the Turks. At the beginning of this century travelers entering the country in the wake of the victorious Russian or German armies could not conceal their consternation. The Asiatic spirit had either enveloped all or destroyed all.

Where are the chivalric Knights of Bosnia, at once the torment and the hope of Hungary? Entirely passed away with their enemy. In Servia, of all the brave companies who fought with their prince in the battles of Kossovo, none remain, not a family, not a name, scarcely a memory. There was left only a population of serfs. Lady Montagu showed us these people trembling under the lash of the Janizaries.

Up to last century the Wallachians and the Moldavians had preserved their nobles, but it would have been better for them not to have had them, for these tributary noblemen, encouraged by the Phanerote princes, showed themselves utterly pitiless to their own poor people. Wallachia is now recovering itself under the protection of Russia, and is promptly rising from its ruins. In these open plains civilization is contagious.

Of the Bulgarian nation which formerly held the balancing power in the fortune of emperors, there was found, on the retreat of the Turks, only the shapeless débris. In Macedonia, in Thessaly, in Epirus there was to be found only a chaos of tongues and races, living under an indifferent authority or tormented by petty tyrants. This does not mean that they were necessarily miserable; for these provinces being farther distant from the frontiers of the empire had suffered less from the evils of war.

The brilliant Albanians in their inaccessible mountains, only nominally tributary to the Turks, were still able to maintain their hard-earned independence. But their form of gov-

ernment cannot be durable, and their example only serves to perpetuate in the heart of the peninsula a form of civilization which even the inhabitants of Timbuctoo have outgrown.

On the eve of the insurrection the great name of Greece resounded everywhere. It awoke the sonorous echoes of ancient Hellas. The sweet tongue of Homer enchanted the ear of the traveler. From the Bosphorus to the Eurotas, in the streets of Constantinople, along the Sea of Marmora, in the valleys of Thessaly, at Yanina as at Corinth, one met the swarms of those bees which had plundered from the lips of Plato. But when one seeks now for them he finds only a few scattered hives.

In the Peloponnesus the traveler is saddened everywhere by the sight of the blackened débris of burned houses, evidences of the destruction which has swept over this whole land. However, upon this privileged soil the vacillating torch of memory has never been completely extinguished. This ingenious and mobile race only partly submitted to sadness, misery, and oppression. Was not the sea left for it? And can a maritime people ever become the slaves of the glebe and the prisoners of the mountain? But in spite of this one cannot help being amazed at the thought of ever again infusing a single spirit in so many different or hostile people. Ancient Greece is dead; it will be impossible ever to resuscitate it.

I have traced this picture not for the vain pleasure of displaying miseries now partly forgotten, still less for the purpose of diminishing the merits of people who have conquered for themselves a place on the earth. On the contrary I admire what they have been able to do for themselves in so short a space of time, converting themselves from serfs into citizens. But why dissimulate as to the difficulties of this glorious enterprise? Why flatter a patriotism which can only mislead these people regarding their own resources and the importance of their rôle? They have grown up in an atmosphere overheated from the Orient, and under the eyes of watchful and jealous nations. Feebly endowed with the most rudimentary powers they have been allowed to enter on an equal footing into the counsels of Europe.

How different their destiny from that of other civilized nations! The youngest of the latter seem old in comparison with them.

Look at Belgium whose present form of government dates back to 1830 only; at Germany and Italy, who have only just reached their full majority. But these nations prepared for a long and brilliant career; they cultivated the arts, letters, science; they were interested in commerce, industry, administration. During their minority they acquired a taste for work, for coherency, for the solid qualities without which a state is only an empty form. They resemble men who lay the foundations of a thorough education before entering political life.

Very different is it with these other peoples, the slaves of yesterday, upon whom is now thrown without any transition period the charge of their own destiny. How can races who scarcely comprehend the obligation of work and the lawfulness of taxes talk of constitutions, of progress, of military service? Of all motives which direct human action they have preserved only the passion for independence. Work for them is servitude, and to escape if possible from its tyrannical law is the first use they make of regained liberty.

From this source spring the interior embarrassments which diminish their power for resistance or for expansion. With them the individual, far from being in advance of the state, as in old civilizations, retards the public power, arrests its attempts, and sometimes refuses it the means of its existence. The government of Serbia is compelled to wage perpetual warfare in levying and collecting its very moderate taxes. The countrymen along the Danube are admirable in an insurrection; they declaim with eloquence against the injustice of imposts; but they do not understand the necessity of forming a compact society in order to hold their proper place among other nations, nor of providing a common fund for the amelioration of their condition. That which is lacking to them is that personal ambition which elsewhere every man displays in his work, and which produces general use and well-being.

But we will rapidly pass over these and other faults of youth in these nations, which after all do not attack the sources of life, and which have not prevented Roumania, Greece, Serbia, from realizing surprising progress. The traveler who now visits them after an interval of twenty years will not recognize them. He will travel easily in railway carriages over routes which he formerly traversed with difficulty in antediluvian carts.

He will find busy cities, with hotels and paved streets, where he left straggling villages of miserable huts and quagmires. This has all been a matter of time. But that which time cannot do for them is to give them the power of forming themselves into a united body.

The principal object of this study has been to show how both nature and history have separated these peoples. The noble sentiment of independence which they have carried into heroism, does not contribute to weld them together. They present the sad spectacle of fraternal nations who attack one another on the day after their emancipation. Without doubt, France, Germany, and Italy have passed through experiences as grave. But these people do not live exclusively for politics. The passion of their masses aroused one day by the quarrels of princes, takes soon another course. The next day every one returns to his business affairs, which occupy after all the greater part of his attention. Territories could be reparceled, boundary lines changed, and provinces united without provoking serious opposition. But such changes would be impossible among a people where the thought of distinct nationality acts as an intoxicant. Serbia and Bulgaria speak almost the same language, but to associate them under the same scepter would seem to both the greatest of misfortunes. Force alone could accomplish such a result.

Supposing that these passions should be mollified by time and that their minds, having become more cultivated should also become broader, would the situation change? There will always be four or five great zones of language and of origin, Greeks, Latins, Slavs, Albanians, to say nothing of the Turks. Each one of these nations was surprised and as it were congealed by the Turkish conquest in a position least favorable for the unity of the peninsula. The Greeks are scattered along the coast and devote themselves to a maritime life; the Roumanians are cantoned along the borders of the Danube, separated from their Latin brothers of Pindus and Dalmatia by the Hungarian frontier; the Servians are without any communication with the sea, enfeebled by the deflection of the Mussulmans of Bosnia, and more than half inclosed within Austrian possessions.

If complete fusion is impossible, what is there in the way of a confederation of Balkan states? It is a seductive idea which from

time to time allures the pen of journalists. For the establishment of such an equilibrium, there are too many jealousies, too many occasions for destroying the required balance. It would be necessary first to suppress the Ottoman Empire. Even then Constantinople as a federal capital is a chimera. There will always be found apples of discord in the Orient.

This does not mean that the states of this peninsula are destined to disappear. The same causes which prevent their unification will also prevent their destruction. To simply conquer them in war is nothing; their weakness places them at the mercy of the stronger. But the real trouble will begin the day after the victory. These people who can never form a regular confederation in time of peace, will league immediately against a common enemy.

Moreover, it is less easy than formerly to suppress in Europe even the smallest state. Poland could not now be parceled out as it was a hundred years ago.

The most probable solution is, that the Balkan Christian states will remain free. I do not mean that they will always preserve exactly their present conditions, but they will—none of them—ever surpass five or ten million inhabitants. That is enough to give them a very honorable position among states of the second order. In all time there have been these little states scattered among larger ones,

as Piedmont between France and Austria, the Netherlands between France and England, Saxony between Austria and Prussia.

It is not seldom, too, that small countries render such service in preserving the equilibrium of the world that they become indispensable. Congresses take them under their protection, for all large governments would rather see them free and prosperous than yield to a rival. Such, for example, are Switzerland and Belgium. The life of their inhabitants is even to be envied, but they reached this honorable condition only after long hardships.

The Balkan states will have more than one storm yet to weather before touching at such a safe harbor. They must, as the others, suffer and labor to conquer not only the right to safe repose, but even the right to live. Slowly they will grow to be considered essential elements in European equilibrium. For great rival nations to create between them little intermediate and relatively peaceable states is the surest and most economic way to prevent or to defer dire conflict.

These are, however, only problematic solutions regarding these states. The old quarrel with Asia is not settled; it remains still to be determined what power and what civilization shall dominate upon the shores of the Bosphorus.

The center of the Eastern Question will always be Constantinople.

STRAWBERRY HILL.

A PICTURE OF ENGLISH SOCIAL LIFE IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

BY EUGENE L. DIDIER.

WHEN Horace Walpole sought in the vicinity of London for a Tusculum which would afford him *rus in urbe*, he discovered what he wanted near the village of Twickenham. It was said of Augustus that he found Rome brick and left it marble. Walpole found Strawberry Hill a "snug little country box" and left it an imposing Gothic castle, embellished with rare pictures, engravings, and curiosities of all kinds, from massive suits of armor to the comb of Queen Mary and the pipe which Van Tromp smoked in his last sea-fight. In this charming retreat, Horace Walpole passed the last fifty years of his life, surrounded by,

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or in communication with, his favorite friends.

Walpole was delighted with his acquisition. In an amusing letter to his lifelong correspondent, Horace Mann, soon after taking possession of his new home, he thus describes it:

"The house is so small that I can send it to you in a letter to look at; the prospect is as delightful as possible, commanding the Thames, the town, and Richmond Park; and being situated on a hill, descends to the river through two or three meadows, where I have some Turkish sheep and two cows, all studied in their colors for becoming the view."

To his cousin, General Conway, he writes in a similar strain :

"It is the prettiest bauble you ever saw. It is set in enameled meadows with filigree hedges :

'A small Euphrates through the piece is rolled,
And little fishes wave their wings in gold.'

Two delightful roads that you would call dusty supply me continually with coaches and chaises, and barges as solemn as Barons of the Exchequer, move under my window. Thank God, the Thames is between me and the Duchess of Queensbury. Dowagers as plenty as flounders inhabit all around, and Pope's ghost is just now skimming under my window by a most poetical moonlight."

He had about "land enough to keep such a farm as Noah's, when he set up in the ark with a pair of each kind." In a few years, however, he boasted of owning fourteen acres.

The genius of Pope had already made the vicinity of Twickenham classic ground, but it was the Lord of Strawberry Hill who made the village a fashionable retreat for the wits, beaux, and beauties of the metropolis. The Countess of Suffolk was his favorite neighbor. She had been a celebrated beauty

at the court of George II., and Walpole never tired of listening to her lively stories of that scandalous time. Henrietta Howard, Countess of Suffolk, was the daughter of Sir Henry Hobart, and granddaughter of the first Earl of Buckinghamshire. After her retirement from court she built Marble Hall. The Earl of Pembroke designed the house, Pope laid out the garden, Dean Swift stocked the cellar, and George II. contributed ten thousand pounds toward the expense of the whole. Swift described the palace as having exhausted Lady Suffolk's means, and being still unfinished :

"My house was only built for show,
My Lady's pocket 's empty now,
And now she will not have a shilling
To raise the stairs or build the ceiling."

The saturnine dean then predicts the probable ruin of the place :

"Some South Sea broker from the city
Will purchase thee, and more's the pity,
Lay all my fine plantations waste
To fit them to his vulgar taste."

Happily the prophecy is not yet fulfilled. Marble Hall is half a mile from Strawberry Hill, and Walpole passed three or four evenings every week there. He was indebted to



Strawberry Hill.

Lady Suffolk for much of the social and political gossip that makes up the chief portion of his memoirs and correspondence. This interesting lady died on the 26th of July, 1767, aged seventy-nine. She retained to the last her youthful elegance of person, as well as her teeth and eyesight, her memory and vivacity. Her hearing had become somewhat impaired many years before her death, but Pope wittily turned the infirmity into a compliment as follows :

"Has she no faults, then (Envy says), sir?
Yes, she has one, I must aver;
When all the world conspire to praise her,
The woman's deaf, and will not hear."

Lord Hervey, who was not much given to praising people, said of the Countess of Suffolk, that she possessed good nature, good sense, and good breeding, that she was civil to everybody, friendly to many, and unjust to none.

Marble Hall subsequently became the residence of Mrs. Fitzherbert after her private marriage to George IV. when Prince of Wales. The Marquis of Wellesley and Lieutenant General Peel also occupied the place at different times.

Another near neighbor of Horace Walpole's, and one of whose society he was particularly fond, was Kitty Clive, the queen of the comic stage. Her private life was as spotless as her public life was brilliant. After forty years' service on the stage, she retired in 1769, and passed the remainder of her life with her brother at a cottage next to Strawberry Hill, which Walpole gave up to her and called Clive Den, but which is better known as Little Strawberry Hill. He cut a



Kitty Clive.

green lane between the house and the common and called it Drury Lane. In December, 1785, Mrs. Clive died and Walpole erected an urn to her memory in the shrubbery of her garden, upon which he placed the following inscription :

"Ye smiles and jests
still hover round;
This is mirth's consecrated ground;
Here lived the
laughter-loving
dame,
A matchless actress,
Clive her name.
The comic muse
with her retired,
And shed a tear
when she expired."

The subject might have inspired better verses, but Horace Walpole was no poet, though he was the friend of the most exquisite poet of the eighteenth century—Thomas Gray. Their friendship began at Eton, and was continued at Cambridge. When Walpole set out on the tour of the continent, then considered necessary to finish a gentleman's education, he took Gray with him. They traveled through France and Italy together, but on their return, while at Reggio, a dispute arose, which terminated in a separation.

Walpole took the whole blame of the quarrel upon himself: "The fault was mine. I was young, too fond of my own diversions, nay, too much intoxicated by indulgence, vanity, and the insolence of my situation as a prime minister's son, not to have been inattentive to the feelings of one, I blush to say it, that I knew was obliged to me. I treated him insolently. I disregarded his wish of seeing places, which I would not quit my own amusements to visit, though I offered to send him thither without me. He acted a most friendly part, had I had the sense to take advantage of it. He freely told

me my faults. I declared I did not desire to hear them, nor would correct them. He was for antiquities; I was for perpetual balls and plays."

The friends were afterwards reconciled, and

"seen Pope and lived with Gray." Walpole pronounced some of the most eminent literary men "mountebanks," and boasted that he laughed at them, yet he was deeply imbued with the degraded philosophy of the century, which affected to love nothing, to fear nothing, and to reverence nothing.

Although he so freely criticised others, Horace Walpole was himself most keenly sensitive to criticism. When one of his works was severely abused, he wrote:

"I am sick of the character of author; I am sick of the consequences of it; I am weary of seeing my name in the newspapers; I am tired of reading foolish criticisms on me, and as foolish defenses of me. I trust my friends will be so good as to let the last abuse of me pass unnoticed."

The work which was so sharply criticised was called "A Catalogue of Royal and Noble Authors." He said his critics thought he "did not understand English," whereas he was "sure *they* did not."

One of Walpole's many affectations was a dislike to be considered a man of learning, or, as Macaulay expresses it, of having "at-



Horace Walpole.

when Walpole set up his printing press at Strawberry Hill, the deliciously dainty odes of Gray were his first essay in typography.

Walpole had not in his heart any genuine appreciation of literary genius or real sympathy for literary men who had not birth and wealth to recommend them. He treated Chatterton with cruelty, Johnson with contempt; he patronized Gray, insulted Hume, called Goldsmith "silly," Akenside "tame," and said he "would rather have written the most absurd lines in 'Nat Lee' than Thomson's 'Seasons.'" When asked to subscribe to the monument of Dr. Johnson, he declared it "an impertinence," and would not deign to write an answer, but sent down word by his footman, as he said he would have done to a bailiff's officers with a brief, that he would not subscribe. Yet he boasted that he had

tended to anything so unfashionable as the improvement of his mind." When complimented by Sir Horace Mann on the learning which appeared in his "Royal and Noble Authors," he wrote this rather absurd reply:

"Pray don't compliment me any more on my learning; there is nobody so superficial. Except a little history, a little poetry, a little painting, and some divinity, I know nothing. How should I? I who have always lived in the big busy world; who lie about all the morning, calling it morning as long as you please; who sup in company; who have played at faro half my life, and won at loo till two or three in the morning. How I have laughed when some of the magazines have called me the *learned gentleman*. Pray, don't be like the magazines."

Macaulay very properly remarks of this passage:

"This folly might be pardoned in a boy; but a man between forty and fifty years old, as Walpole then was, ought to be quite as much ashamed of playing at loo till three every morning as of being a learned gentleman."

While dreading or pretending to dread the reputation of learning, he said in his dedication of the "*Life of Lord Herbert*," which was printed at the Strawberry Hill press: "Men of the proudest blood should not blush to distinguish themselves in letters as well as arms."

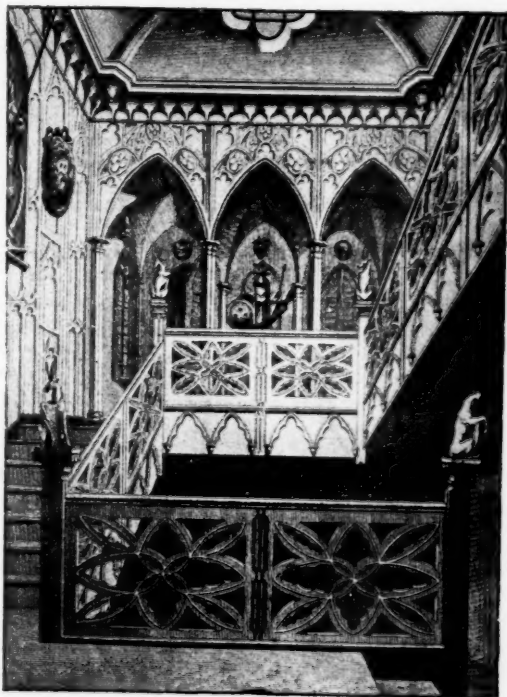
Burke called Horace Walpole an "elegant trifler." Society, anecdotes, and gossip divided his time with books, printing, and architecture. He was the greatest gossip of the eighteenth century. His letters are more lively than Chesterfield's, more amiable than Lady Wortley Montagu's, more entertaining than the Duke of Bedford's. In fact, they are the best record of the life, manners, and extravagance of English society during the latter half of the last century.

Like the old philosopher, his business in life seemed to be to laugh at the follies of men and women. His letters show that the prevailing taint of the aristocratic society of England at that time was a general moral intoxication; gambling, intrigue, drunkenness, and riot were practised by ladies and gentlemen without restraint and without fear of public opinion. In short, Thackeray's description of the corruption of English society in "*The Virginians*" is confirmed by Walpole's chronicle of the life of his time.

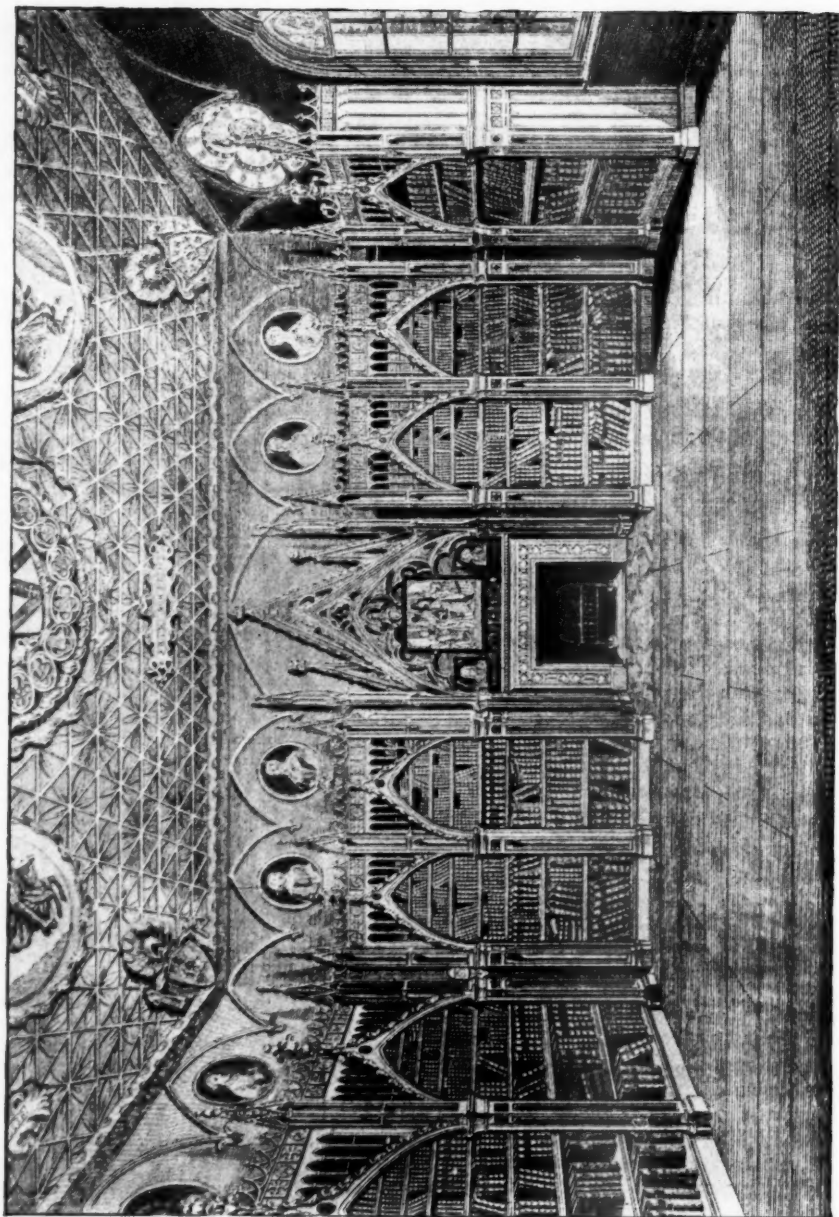
We read of fashionable women playing cards from six in the evening till twelve the next day, and winning two thousand pounds from a Mr. Lumley, who, believing himself cheated by the fair gamblers, refused to pay his debt of honor, and was cowed by one of them in Hampstead Garden. We read of ladies inviting gentlemen to taverns and passing hours over wine and cards. We read of ladies betting and cheating on the turf, betting and cheating in private parlors and public clubs, betting and cheating everywhere. This was the age when gentlemen were seldom sober after dinner; when dukes rode their own

racers, and were versed in the rascality of Newmarket; when maids of honor read the verses of Prior and the novels of Mrs. Aphra Behn; when the comedies of Congreve were played at court before admiring princesses—in a word, the age of the Queensburys, the Selwyns, the Georges.

Horace Walpole was of this age, but he had too much taste, too much talent, too much sense to be satisfied with the heartless dissipation of the fashionable people of his time, and he took to literature as a relief from the society of club dandies and ladies in waiting. He had at Strawberry Hill a library of fifteen thousand volumes. He had a study where he worked, as well as a gallery of pictures which he showed to visitors. He wrote books as well as gave dinners. He finished "*The Castle of Otranto*" in eight days, or rather nights, for his hours of composition were from ten at night till two in the morning, to prevent being disturbed by visitors. This novel was original in its plot and interesting in its narrative. It obtained an immediate popularity, which, in a measure, it



Staircase at Strawberry Hill.



Library at Strawberry Hill.

still retains. Sir Walter Scott said it was remarkable, not only for the wild interest of the story, but as the first modern attempt to found a tale of amusing fiction upon the basis of the ancient romances of chivalry.

Walpole also wrote the "Mysterious Mother," a tragedy which was never acted and is never read; he wrote "Anecdotes of Painting," "Memoirs of the Reigns of George I., II., and III.," "Historic Doubts on the Life of Richard III.," but his famous "Letters" are his best passport to posterity. "He loved letter-writing," says Macaulay, "and had evidently studied it as an art. It was, in truth, the very kind of writing for such a man, for a man very ambitious to rank among wits, yet nervously afraid that, while obtaining the reputation of a wit, he might lose caste as a gentleman."

Horace Walpole was a wit, a man of fashion, a beau, what was called in the last century a *fine gentleman*. His large fortune enabled him to enjoy all the luxuries of literature without experiencing any of its hardships, or, as has been said, he "picked all the roses of science and left the thorns."

He could not appreciate the rough but noble character of Dr. Johnson, who, he said, had "all the gigantic littleness of a country schoolmaster." But Philibert, Comte de Grammont, half blackleg, wholly scandalous chronicler, was a hero in the eyes of Walpole. He says he is "out of his wits" at the discovery of this reprobate's portrait: "I believe I shall see company upon so happy an event—certainly keep the day holy."

Walpole, the fine gentleman and connoisseur, would give a hundred guineas for a painted beggar, but he gave not a shilling to the starving genius, Chatterton. "Authors," he said, "have their pens, and the public must reward them as it pleases." Yes, and by the pens of authors, whom he despised, has he been held up to the just condemnation of the world!

Walpole wrote some verses called the "Parish Register of Twickenham," in which he introduced several of the famous residents of the village, living and dead:

"Where the Thames round Twick'ham meads
His winding current sweetly leads;
Twick'ham, the Muses' fav'rite seat,
Twick'ham, the Graces' lov'd retreat,
Where Bacon tuned the grateful lyre
To soothe Eliza's haughty ire,

Where Montagu, with lock dishevel'd
(Conflict of dirt and warmth divine),
Mock'd and scandaliz'd the Nine,
Where Pope in moral music spoke,
To th' anguish'd soul of Bolingbroke,

Where Fielding met his bantering Muse,
And as they quaff'd the fiery juice,
Droll Nature stamped each lucky hit
With unimaginable wit."

Bacon is said to have planned the *Novum Organum*, and written some of his most famous essays at Twickenham Park, where he enjoyed what he called the "purest of human pleasures," gardening. Henry Fielding wrote Tom Jones in a quaint old-fashioned wooden house in the Back Lane of the village.

Lady Montagu, one of the most beautiful and brilliant women of the last century, lived near Strawberry Hill for several years. She was induced to remove to Twickenham by Pope, who celebrated her charms in verses which outlived the friendship of the beauty and the poet. He persuaded her to sit to Sir Godfrey Kneller for her portrait, and expressed his satisfaction with the picture in the following extemporaneous lines:

"The playful smiles around the dimpled mouth,
That happy air of majesty and truth,
So would I draw (but, oh! 'tis vanity to try,
My narrow genius does the power deny)
The equal luster of the heavenly mind
Where every grace with every virtue's joined."

At the court of George I., Lady Mary was pre-eminently distinguished for her wit, beauty, and fascinating manners. While her personal charms ornamented and delighted courts, her brilliant genius and lively conversation made her the friend of poets. Young consulted her about his tragedy of "The Brothers." Fielding dedicated his first comedy to her; Savage sought her bounty; Gay her advice, and all her society. Pronounced one of the most accomplished women of her age or country, her letters are said to combine the solid judgment of Rochefoucauld, without his misanthropy, and the sentimental elegance of Mme. de Sévigné, without her repetition. Pope praised her wit and poetry, admired her beauty, and flattered her vanity.

When Gay complimented Pope on the completion of his Twickenham villa, he sent him a poetical reply in which he declares:

"In vain my structures rise, my gardens grow,
In vain fair Thames reflects the double scenes
Of hanging mountains and of sloping greens;
Joy lives not there; to happier seats it flies,
And only dwells where *Wortley* casts her eyes."

Soon this extravagant praise changed to bitter satire, and the poet attacked the lady in a scurrilous lampoon, to which she replied with equal severity, comparing her assail-



Lady Mary Wortley Montagu.

ant to a "puny insect shivering at a breeze," and declaring that "his heart was as hard as his birth obscure." The cause of this quarrel still remains a mystery, though it has been stated that he presumed upon her friendship to make love to her.

"He liked that dangerous thing, a female wit—"

and Lady Mary scorned his love, and laughed at the ridiculous little lover, who was only four feet and a half high, and so weak that he had to be bound up in three suits of flannel before he could get up in the morning.

Horace Walpole first met Lady Mary at Florence in 1741. He was then twenty-four and she fifty-one; therefore it is rather strange that some of his biographers make him say that he was a playmate of hers when they both were children. She was married before he was born, and her son, the worthless Edward Wortley Montagu was four years older than Walpole. The latter did not like the famous beauty and wit. He dreaded her sar-

casm, which he tried to make harmless by sneering at its author.

He always spoke ungenerously and unjustly of his brilliant neighbor, and thus announced her return after a long residence on the Continent: "Lady Mary Wortley Montagu has arrived. Her avarice, her dirt, and her vivacity are all increased. Her dress like her language, is a *galamatias* of several centuries—the ground-work rags and the embroidery nastiness." Walpole was nothing if he was not critical, and in his endeavor to keep up his reputation as a man of wit, he spared neither friends nor foes.

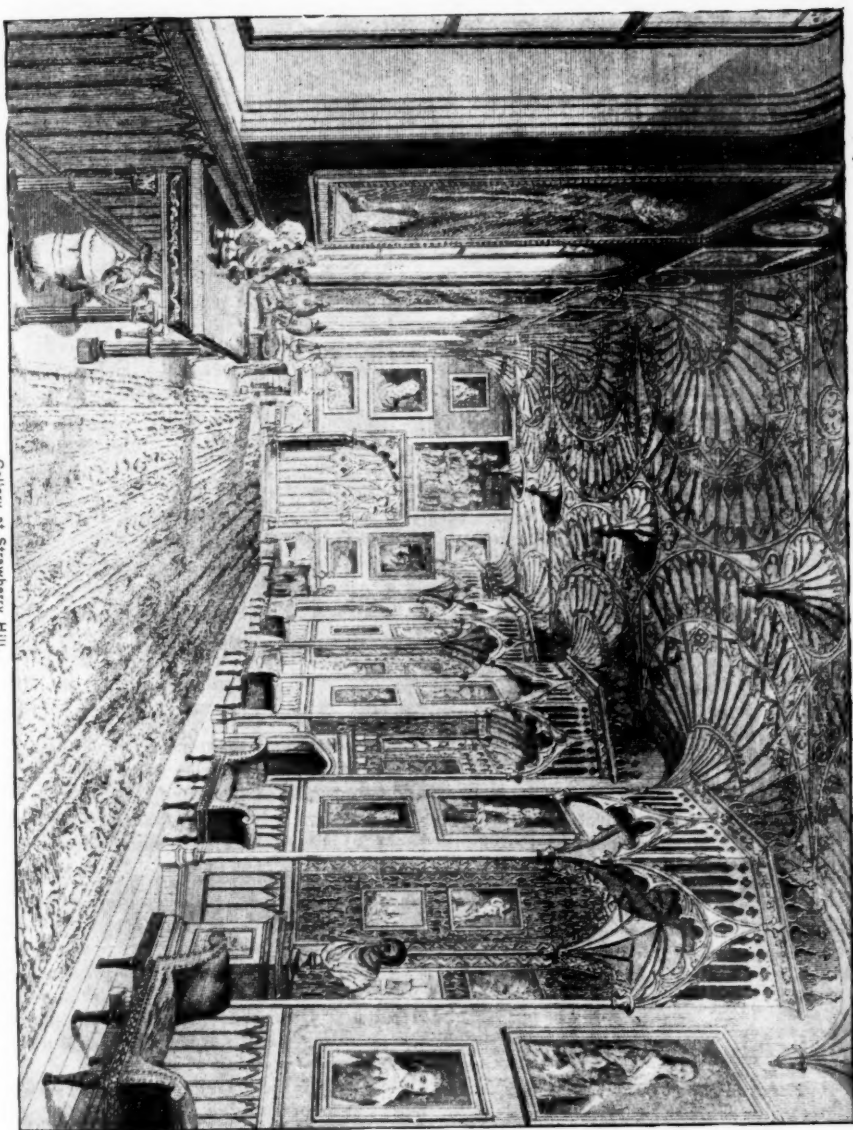
Spencer, the author of the celebrated "Anecdotes," gives this lively description of Lady Mary:

"She is one of the most shining characters in the world, but shines like a comet; she is all irregularity and always wandering; the most wise, the most imprudent; the loveliest, the most disagreeable; the best natured, cruelest woman in the world; all things by turns, and nothing long."

But, if Horace Walpole failed to do justice to the many fascinating qualities of Lady Mary Wortley Montagu, he appreciated and admired his lovely cousin, Mrs. Anne Seymour Damer, and Strawberry Hill was left to her during her life, with £2,000 a year to keep up the place.

Horace Walpole was never married, but he was in love a hundred times. At twenty-four he said he was not young enough nor old enough to be in love. His first love (after his love for himself, which began early and continued till his death) was the Lady Juliana Fermor, daughter of Lord Pomfret. After her marriage he transferred his fickle affection to her sister Lady Sophia, whom he christened Juno. But again he was unfortunate in his love, for Lady Sophia was designed by her ambitious mother for something better than a younger son, however gay, rich, and fascinating he might be. She married Lord Granville, a man fifty-four years old, without reluctance, for she was ambitious, like all her family.

Horace Walpole had many female friends. He was the most fastidious and refined man of that not very refined age, and he found in the society of women, the refinement which was wanting in the men of the time. Among his numerous lady friends were Elizabeth Berkeley, Countess of Craven, Anne Luttrell, whose romantic marriage with the famous



Gallery at Strawberry Hill.

Duke of Cumberland (who was called respectively the Hero of Culloden and the Butcher of Culloden), caused so great a *furor* in fashionable society; Mary, Lady Holland, the Countess of Ossory, with whom he corresponded for many years, Lady Diana Beauclerk, and Lady Hervey.

Lady Diana Beauclerk's residence at Twickenham was called Little Marble Hill. She ornamented the house with great elegance and embellished many of the rooms with her paintings. She was the daughter of the Duke of Marlborough, and married Topham Beauclerk, grandson of the first Duke of St. Albans. Mr. Beauclerk was a member of Dr. Johnson's famous literary club, and one of the most brilliant men of his time. Lady Diana painted several scenes from the "Mysterious Mother," and Horace Walpole was so pleased with these and other works of hers, that he kept them in a special room at Strawberry Hill.

The last female friendship of Horace Walpole was formed in 1788, when he was in his seventy-second year. We allude to the romantic attachment of the Lord of Strawberry Hill for the two interesting sisters, Mary and Agnes Berry. They met the first time at the house of Lady Herries in the winter of 1788. This acquaintance ripened into the closest friendship in the autumn of the same year when they became his neighbors at Twickenham.

On the occasion of the Misses Berry's first visit to Strawberry Hill, Walpole addressed them in these lovely lines:

"To Mary's lips has ancient Rome
Her purest language taught,
And from the modern city home
Agnes its pencil brought.

Rome's ancient Horace sweetly chants
Such maids with lyric fire;
Albion's old Horace sings nor paints—
He only can admire."

The next day, Mary answered her gallant old friend:

"Had Rome's famed Horace thus adored
His Lydia or his Lyce,
He'd ne'er complained, to him this breast
So oft was cold and icy.

But had they sought their joy t'explain,
Or praise their gen'rous bard,
Perhaps like me, they'd tried in vain,
And felt the task too hard."

From the time of their residence at Twickenham, the Misses Berry were the solace and delight of Horace Walpole's declining years. He saw them constantly, and when they were absent on the Continent or elsewhere, he kept up a frequent and affectionate correspondence. Upon them he lavished all the tenderness of his nature. In the beginning of his acquaintance with them, he wrote to



Miss Berry.

the Countess of Ossory that they were the best informed and most perfect creatures he ever saw at their age (they were twenty-four and twenty-five at that time).

Four years later, he pays the following beautiful tribute to these lovely sisters:

"I have been three-score years and ten looking for a society that I perfectly like, and at last there dropped out of the clouds into Lady Herries' room two young gentlewomen, who I so little thought were sent thither on purpose for me, that when I was told they were the charming Miss Berrys I would not even go to the side of the chamber where they sat. But as Fortune never throws anything at one's head without hitting one, I soon found that the charming Berrys were precisely *ce qu' il me fallait*, and that, though young enough to be my granddaughters, lovely enough to turn the heads of all our youths, and sensible enough, if said youths have any brains, to set all their heads to rights again,—yes, sweet damsels, I have found that you can bear to pass half your time with an antediluvian without discovering any *ennui*, tho'

his greatest merit toward you is that he is not one of those old fools who fancy they are in love in their dotage."

Notwithstanding this last assertion, it is said that the disparity of age and the fear of losing her friendship alone prevented Horace Walpole from offering his hand to Miss Berry.

The last letter of this lively correspondent affords a striking and melancholy contrast to the vivacious social gossip and fashionable scandal which he had written for more than half a century.

"I scarce go out of my house, and then only to two or three very private places where I see nobody that really knows anything. At home I see only a few charitable elders, except about four-score nephews and nieces of various ages, who are each brought to me once a year to stare at me."

Like the clock at Strawberry Hill, which Henry VIII. gave to Anne Boleyn, Horace Walpole was fast ceasing to be a timekeeper. He was a worn out wreck of the past. His last moments were soothed by the constant presence of the Misses Berry, and he was thus saved from the chilling influence of old age, the want of companions and domestic loneliness. A few months before his death, he was persuaded to leave Strawberry Hill and to take up his residence in Berkeley Square, that he might be within reach of the best medical skill of London. On the third of March, 1797, he died, in the eightieth year of his age.

Miss Berry survived her distinguished friend for more than half a century, and lived to be the center around which gathered the beauty, fashion, intellect, and fame of England. When Macaulay, in a few brilliant passages, attempted to hold Walpole up to ridicule as a bundle of inconsistencies and affectations, it was Miss Berry who ventured to defend her friend from so formidable an assailant.

Horace Walpole was tall and slender, his complexion pale, his eyes dark and penetrating, his voice soft and pleasant. He dressed with taste and elegance in the fashion of the times. In summer he usually wore a lavender suit, a richly embroidered waistcoat, lace ruffles and frill. He was very hospitable. He used to say he kept an inn—the Gothic Castle. "Take my advice," he writes to a friend, "never build a charming house for yourself between London and Hampton Court, everybody will live in it except yourself." The fame of Strawberry Hill drew crowds of visitors to the place, from the royal family down to the veriest curiosity hunter. "My whole time," he complains, "is passed in giving tickets for seeing it, and hiding myself while it is seen." But he should not have complained, for Strawberry Hill has contributed to preserve his name and fame. Like Chaucer's "Joyous House of Tidings,"

"Al' was the timber of no strength,
Yet it is found to endure."



Woman's Council Table.



Miss Katharine Lee Bates.
Professor of English History in Wellesley College.
Author of "Woman as Scholar," "A Norman Lady,"
"Ballad of Swain the Sea King," etc.



Mrs. Alice Freeman Palmer, Ph.D., Lit D.
Formerly President of Wellesley College.
Author of "Education is Life," the Address to the
C. L. S. C. Class of '90.



Mrs. Emma P. Ewing.
Lecturer on Household Science. Author of "Cooking
and Castle-Building," "The Ideal Bill of Fare," "Din-
ners and Dinner Giving," "Making and Testing
Flour," etc.



Mrs. Alice B. Stockham, M.D.
Publisher of "The Kindergarten." Author of
"Tokology."

A GROUP OF OUR CONTRIBUTORS.

Woman's Council Table.

THE WOMAN'S CONGRESS.

BY ISABEL HOWLAND.

ON the 14th, 15th, and 16th of October there was held in Grand Rapids, Michigan, a most interesting convention. It was called by women, conducted by women, and, although welcoming men to its public sessions, its constant object was to appeal to the thought of women.

It was not a suffrage convention although there were speakers on its program who are closely associated with the suffrage movement. Neither was it a temperance convention although devoted White Ribboners were heard on its platform. No one reform called it together and yet none was shut out. This was the Woman's Congress, the annual meeting of the Association for the Advancement of Women.

Twenty years ago, a few ladies of the New York Sorosis formed a plan by which they hoped to bring the women of the United States into closer sympathy in their work. They planned to call a congress which should be a representative body. To this congress should come regularly elected delegates from every American society or club of women, philanthropic, religious, literary, professional, it mattered not for what object associated. These representatives should meet once a year and discuss ways and means of work, returning to their various home organizations with new ideas and fresh enthusiasm.

An incentive would thus be given to women to meet in associations, and new interests would open before them; women's influence would become stronger; and the day would be brought nearer when men and women should stand side by side, realizing that the interests of one half the human race were the interests of both.

It was a magnificent plan, but the time was not ripe for any movement so far-reaching. Women were not yet ready to respond, even had it been attempted. But a convention was called. The name first suggested was kept and a Woman's Congress has been held annually since. An association was formed into which members were regularly received; a constitution and by-laws were adopted; officers were elected, and committees appointed.

Although it fell short of what was first

hoped for it, the association has been a source of inspiration in many cities. Professor Maria Mitchell was one of its presidents, Mrs. Mary A. Livermore another, and now the place is filled by Mrs. Julia Ward Howe.

It has called together women of great minds and noble thoughts and helpful deeds to speak from its platform and as it has moved from city to city, it has left in its wake an impulse to think and to work in larger circles.

It has taught women whose sphere is the home that to make the home machinery run most smoothly they must keep their own minds broad and bright, that they must have keen, living interests outside as well as in, that there are other needs than those of their own households to which they should look, and that there is mutual aid in banding together.

It has given support and encouragement to professional women and workingwomen, by teaching the duty of honest labor, the respectability of the laborer, and the right of every woman to work as necessity or taste directs.

Congresses have been held in New York, Chicago, Syracuse, Philadelphia, Cleveland, Providence, Boston, Denver, and various other cities. None of all these acknowledges its debt so gratefully and gracefully as does Buffalo. According to their own story, the women there seemed to rouse as from sleep. They had no sooner said good-by to the Congress than they set about marshaling their forces and they formed the Woman's Educational and Industrial Union that is known to-day as one of the most successful organizations of its kind.

The association by holding congresses in different states has acquired members in widely different localities; but the members' list never shows more than a few hundred at a time. Many join for the year and then drop out, renewing their membership later, if they are able to attend a congress. It is not the object to keep up a large list, but rather to rouse, to start off on new tracks, in the home field.

From those who join and remain loyal are selected vice-presidents, one for each state represented. It is the duty of the vice-

presidents to bring to the congress a report upon the intellectual, moral, and industrial conditions and needs of the women of their state. And these reports add greatly to the interest of the congress.

Besides these officers there are twenty-five directors chosen from the most interested and capable workers, two auditors, and a secretary and treasurer.

Following the officers are the standing committees, yearly appointed; and a feature of the meetings is the presentation of the reports of their chairmen. A committee on science gives the steps ahead that women have made on scientific lines during the year; one on reforms and statistics reports as its name indicates; likewise others on education, industrial education, art, and journalism.

The meetings of the congress continue for three days and are held in this wise:

Members alone meet in session each morning and listen to the reports. If a man happens to stroll into one of these private sessions, he is forced to take an ignominious leave; and reporters have no rights. This is a cast-iron rule of A. A. W. but is sometimes regretted as the meetings, being less formal, are more entertaining than the public ones and, because of the valuable reports, are sometimes more fruitful.

Public sessions where papers are given, followed by discussion, are held in the afternoon and evening. Everybody is welcomed and there are always fine audiences with many gentlemen. In the evening a small fee is charged to assist in defraying expenses.

Business meetings of the board are held before the morning members' meetings, also on the evening before the opening of the congress and on the morning after the close.

The A. A. W. went to Grand Rapids, Michigan, as the guest of the Ladies' Literary Club of that city. This club numbers over five hundred members and owns a house. Beginning as a little history class it has wrought out a phenomenal prosperity. The club house is built of light colored brick, and stands a little back from the street, presenting an arched entrance of hospitable proportions. A hall leads to the brightly lighted library, and to the cheerful and attractive auditorium, also upstairs to a refreshment room or class room, as the need may be.

Twice during the congress the guests were entertained here, between afternoon and evening sessions. The Ladies' Literary Club

gave a delightful reception, and the St. Cecilia Musical Society courteously signified that its lathstring was out on the occasion of the regular meeting, a charming Schubert afternoon.

The congress itself was held in a large and handsome Baptist church, the morning meetings below stairs in the Sunday-school rooms and those of the afternoon and evening in the church proper. Masses of fall flowers, marigolds and *Zinnias*, with branches of autumn leaves, made the platform bright. Exquisite music, furnished by the St. Cecilia, delighted the ear. It pleased the reporters to be able to say that the only man who set foot upon the platform during the congress was a gentleman who sang.

Among the members occupying the front seats, were many women who had made places for themselves among the world's workers. There were at least three clergywomen—all over prosperous churches. One came from Chicago, another from Kalamazoo, and the third was a resident of Grand Rapids. There were women lawyers, and women doctors *ad libitum*, and teachers, and other women who follow no profession but who are full of good works.

At one public session the Rev. Anna H. Shaw appeared in the audience and was asked to speak. She responded in her usual clear and forceful manner, ending by presenting the greetings of the National American Woman Suffrage Association.

Grand Rapids was well represented in the audience, as would be expected, but there were also many from other towns and villages of Michigan, besides the visitors who came from a greater distance. Invitations had been sent broadcast by means of a pretty souvenir giving general information about the congress, the club, and Grand Rapids in general. It was illustrated with views of the club house and portraits of A. A. W. presidents.

Ten papers, upon as many subjects, and two symposia entertained the six public sessions. Mrs. Howe's subject this year was "Aliens in America" and was treated with the generosity and the breadth of mind which one would expect from her. For the first time in the history of the congress, one of Mrs. Howe's daughters (who seems to have inherited her mother's mental ability and fine command of language) presented a paper to a congress audience. The topic was "Some

American Artists" and the writer, Mrs. Maud Howe Elliott. The matter and the style were both entertaining and made a pleasing variety.

A widely known woman, especially in women's club circles, is Mrs. Charlotte Emerson Brown, of East Orange, New Jersey. Mrs. Brown is the president of the General Federation of Women's Clubs, formed three years ago in New York. She read a paper on "The Conditions of Success for Women."

Mrs. Clara Bewick Colby had a convincing paper entitled "The Present Status of Wyoming as Affected by Woman Suffrage." Every statement was vouched for and statistics were frequently given. Before such an array of facts opponents of the cause could have, it seemed, nothing to say.

Miss Mary A. Ripley, of Nebraska, was another speaker at the congress. Having been for many years a teacher, Miss Ripley had been asked to present an educational paper, with the subject, "The Wise Economy of Time and Strength as a Part of Education." There is no better speaker on the A. A. W. platform than Miss Ripley. Two years ago in Denver, at the congress, she "came out," so to speak, and with such brilliant success that she returned no more to her old haunts in Buffalo, N. Y., but remained in the West to devote herself to lecturing.

The name of Mrs. Lucinda H. Stone is almost a household word throughout Michigan. Hundreds of women gratefully acknowledge their mental awakening to have come through her classes or lectures or personally conducted tours. At the present time, Mrs. Stone's power is directed against the faculty of Michigan University in the hope of making a place there for women. The symposium on "The Real and the Ideal in Art" was opened by this eminently qualified instructor.

Miss Catharine Weed Barnes, of Albany, N. Y., who thinks there is nothing in the world quite so satisfying as a camera, gave a paper on "Photography for Women." Miss Barnes has a thorough, practical, and scientific knowledge of the business of picture-making and believes that no one should go into it with less knowledge.

It was hoped that Mrs. Potter Palmer, of Chicago, would be able to spare to the congress a few hours from her busy life, but she failed to come. Mrs. Virginia Meredith, of

Indiana, one of the board of lady managers under Mrs. Palmer, appeared as her representative and discoursed upon the Columbian Exposition.

The second symposium was on "The Grippe." Several physicians spoke, giving views of both the Regular and Homœopathic Schools. Good advice, science, and fun were intermingled in the speeches.

Other papers were presented upon "Women in Colleges," by Miss Octavia W. Bates, of Detroit, "Women in Africa," by Mrs. Ellen Battelle Dietrick, of Boston (read by Mrs. Ellen M. Mitchell, of Denver), and "The Importance of Keeping Close to Nature in Education," by Mrs. Henrietta L. T. Wolcott, of Dedham, Massachusetts, the treasurer of the association and a working member whom it could not well do without.

The Spinner Memorial was brought up at one meeting, and at another the Maria Mitchell Memorial Fund.

Mrs. Howe was asked to recite her "Battle Hymn of the Republic" and did it in the beautiful and impressive way which never fails her. The audience followed with singing it.

Mrs. Howe's presence at the congresses is the cause of much of their popularity and influence. Her name of itself would recommend the association whose list of officers it heads. She is a woman of great endurance as well as of tact, intellect, and culture. Age does not affect her energy. She sits through long meetings without a murmur and rarely gives up her place to be filled by another.

Although the A. A. W. takes no stand for woman suffrage, Mrs. Howe is always true to her colors. In Toronto, last autumn, when one of the gentlemen, gathered to make speeches of welcome, expressed himself as greatly relieved not to find it a suffrage convention, Mrs. Howe, while acquiescing, said with courtesy, but with great firmness, "Nevertheless, *I am an ardent suffragist.*" May she long live to fill a place of honor and worth among us!

Where the next congress will be held is not yet known. The time and place are usually decided at the midyear meeting of officers held in March. But wherever it takes its way, North, South, East, or West, may skies be fair above it and minds and hearts waiting with a welcome.

Woman's Council Table.

LEGAL, DOMESTIC RELATIONS.

BY MARY A. GREENE, LL. B.

Of the Boston Bar.

FROM a legal, as well as from a sociological point of view, marriage is the true basis of the domestic relation, and we should here consider the laws relating to marriage and divorce, and the legal responsibilities of husband and wife. As these have been recently discussed in the pages of this magazine, we pass at once to consider the legal rights and duties arising from the relation of parent and child.

The father has the sole right to the custody of his child, but if he is proven to be unfit to have the care, the proper court, on petition, may take the child away from him and give it to the mother or some other suitable person. In such a case, if the child is old enough to make an intelligent choice the court may allow him to choose which parent he will live with.

The father has a right to the child's earnings, on the ground that this offsets the expense of maintaining him, for the law, as we have already seen, obliges a father to maintain his child in a style suitable to his station in life. Of course, the father may, if he chooses, waive this legal right and allow the child to keep what money he earns for his personal use.

The law books say that a child's clothes and spending money are provisional gifts, and he cannot do with them just as he pleases, but must consider the parent's wishes. This is rational of course, and sensible, but it hardly rests on precedent, by which we mean a decision in a court of justice. In fact one would scarcely expect a father to sue his child for squandering his pocket money or defacing his clothes. The remedy of private discipline by reprimand or corporal punishment is cheaper, quicker, and more effective, and is sanctioned by law, provided the chastisement is not brutal.

When a minor child inherits property or receives it by a legacy or other gift, the father, if living, cannot receive or invest it for the child, nor can the child legally receive it himself, so as to have a perfect title. The father must go to the proper court, which in most states is the probate court, and get a legal appointment as guardian of his child.

He then holds the property, as guardian, till the child is of age.

A word as to deposits in savings banks for children. It is not judicious merely to deposit your own money in the bank in the child's name, if you want to be sure that the child will get the benefit of it. In case of a dispute between the child and your heirs after your death as to the ownership of the money, the heirs will get it unless the child can prove some intention on your part to give it, as shown in your words or acts. In a recent case, it was proved that a stepfather brought home a bank-book and laid it in the child's lap, without saying a word, not even when the child thanked him, as she did at once, but the court considered this sufficient to show his intention to give the money.

When a person legally adopts a child, his rights and duties as a parent are in every respect the same as if the child were born to him. In the case of stepchildren there is no duty or responsibility, unless it is voluntarily assumed. When the burden is thus assumed by taking the stepchild under his roof and caring for it, the stepfather is obliged to continue the care as if the child were his own.

In only five states has a mother any absolute legal right to the custody of her children. These are Iowa, Nebraska, Kansas, Oregon, and Washington, where both parents have equal rights in the matter.

In other states a mother has no control over her children, not even if driven from home by her husband's cruelty, unless she applies to the court for the custody. In other words, the father by right of fatherhood, can claim his child, but motherhood is not enough, the court must be appealed to before the mother can have absolute right to her children. This injustice is so tangled with legal technicalities that it is hard to unravel the snarl, but since it has been done in five states it can be done in others.

Now as to guardians and wards :

It has just been said that the father, if living, is the person to be appointed guardian of his child's property. This is his exclusive right. He may also, if he sees fit,

appoint some person by his last will to be guardian of his minor children. A guardian so appointed in a will is called a testamentary guardian. A mother cannot, as a rule, appoint a testamentary guardian, but in Massachusetts, and possibly elsewhere by statute, a widowed mother may do so, if the father did not appoint one in his will.

A widowed mother of minor children ought to know that she, in preference to any other person, has the right to be appointed guardian, and she ought to insist upon this right no matter how much confidence she may have in any other person who may offer to perform the duties of the office. Ignorance of business methods does not unfit her for the position, for she can obtain advice from those who are competent to advise. If she waives her claim to be appointed guardian, she loses her right to the custody of her children.

A child over fourteen years of age may choose his own guardian, subject to the approval of the probate court.

A guardian is held to a strict account for his dealings with the property intrusted to him, and if he is proven to be dishonest or otherwise unfit for the trust, he will be removed upon complaint to the court. He can buy and sell personal property for his ward, duly rendering account thereof to the court,

and real estate also, but in case he wants to sell the ward's real estate, he must get a license from court.

Another domestic relation is that of master and servant. Perhaps the relation of mistress and servant occasions the greater vexation. To avoid difficulties both parties should clearly understand, at the time the servant is hired, whether the hiring is by the week, the month, or the season, and how long a "notice" is to be given by either party.

In the absence of these express stipulations the rule is this: If the hiring was by the week, a week's notice is to be given, if by the month a month's notice, unless there exists in the community a well-established custom of giving some uniform notice, as for instance, a week. Then that custom is to be a guide in getting at the mutual understanding. But such a custom must be so common and well-known to everyone that it is reasonably to be expected that both mistress and maid knew of it and acted with reference to it. In case of a dispute as to whether the hiring was by the week or the month, the times at which the wages were paid are evidence of what the agreement was. If they were paid at intervals of a week, for example, this fact goes to show that the servant was hired by the week.

MAKING AND TESTING FLOUR.

BY EMMA P. EWING.

ALTHOUGH flour is in daily use in nearly every family in the United States, comparatively few cooks or housekeepers know anything about the quality of different brands of flour; or can tell whether they are using flour of a choice or of an inferior grade.

There are various methods of testing flour but this is one of the simplest: Take some flour in the left hand, add a little water, and with the right forefinger mix a rather stiff dough in the hand. Let it stand a few minutes, then knead and work in the hand. If the flour is good the dough will become stiffer and dryer with working, and have an elastic, rubbery feeling. If it is of inferior quality the dough will become soft and sticky under protracted working. Flour that is of a

chalky or bluish white shade, or that feels soft and salvy, and when balled together in the hand remains in a lump should be avoided.

A majority of millers make four grades or brands of flour, as by so doing they can grind their wheat to better pecuniary advantage, in other words can "make it pay" better to do so. These grades are given different names at different mills. Some millers make first patent, second patent, baker's, and red dog; some make patent, straight, family, and extra; others make patent, clear, family, and superfine; while others make corresponding grades under various names.

Some mills make three grades, and a few make only two grades of flour. But more money can be got out of a given quantity of

wheat, by making it into four grades of flour. Consequently a large majority of mills turn out four grades, and these four grades, no matter by what brand or trademark they are known, are in the main very similar in character when milled from grain of the same quality.

Under the system of milling which was in vogue till twenty-five or thirty years ago, the finest wheat flour was deficient in nitrogen and the phosphates, because under that system the only fine flour that could be produced was mostly starch. Millers had no facilities for separating and purifying the middlings, which contained the hard, nitrogenous parts of the grain, and they were largely wasted or used for pig and cattle feed.

The new system of milling known as the Hungarian, patent, or roller process has, however, entirely revolutionized things, and the middlings which contain those parts of the wheat, are all saved, purified, and milled with care, into patent, or new process flour. The idea is still entertained by many that the choice, high-priced patent flours are deficient in nitrogenous matter, but the reverse is the fact. These flours contain all the best elements of the wheat berry, without any dirty admixture of pulverized wood fiber, bran coating, or germ grease; and all things considered, the very finest patent flour holds the leading place, both hygienically and economically among cereal foods or grain products.

First patent, or the highest grade of new process flour, is made from middlings that have been cleansed of impurities by the "middlings purifiers," which machines are the foundation principle of the patent, or new process, method of milling. The inferior middlings go into the second, third, and fourth grades in due proportions, according to grade. The highest grade contains more gluten in proportion to the quantity of starch than the other grades.

But any of the different grades can be varied and raised or lowered in quality, at the option of the miller, by increasing or decreasing the amount of gluten and starch in a given quantity of flour. Where the first patent, made from a given quantity of wheat, is of the choicest quality, it contains a large percentage of the best constituents of the wheat, and the other grades, made from the same wheat, must, of necessity, be correspondingly low in those constituents.

Strength, when applied to flour, means the measure of its power to absorb and retain water; or indicates, rather, the measure of water absorbed by the flour in order to produce dough of a certain consistency, without any regard to the delicacy or nutritive qualities of the bread obtained from such dough. Bakers always look at flour from a pecuniary standpoint, and when they talk of the strength of flour, they mean that a certain grade of flour will absorb more water and make more loaves of bread, than another grade, and that a barrel of flour of that special grade will take more wetting into its mixture and yield a greater quantity of bread, than a barrel of another grade will, the quality of the bread not being taken into account.

There is usually from sixty cents to a dollar a barrel difference in the price of the first and second grade of flour of most mills, or in the price of the first and second patent, as these grades are called; and frequently a difference of fifty per cent in price between a barrel of the highest and a barrel of the lowest grade of flour; in other words, when the best patent flour made by a certain mill sells for \$6 a barrel, the lowest grade flour made by the same mill sells for \$3 a barrel. As a general rule, however, the highest priced flour is much the cheapest, as it contains more than twice the amount of nutritious material, without any waste or refuse matter, and will produce more than twice the quantity of good, wholesome, bone-and-muscle-making bread.

"Haxall flour" is spoken of by a good many people as if it possessed some peculiar qualities; but it is simply flour made of southern winter wheat at the mills of the Haxall-Crenshaw Co., in Richmond, Virginia. The word "Haxall" was patented and registered as a trademark by the company, and no special significance attaches to it. But owing to the superior quality of the flour made at the Richmond mills for many years, "Haxall" has come to be regarded in some sections of the country, notably in Boston, as a synonym for the choicest brands of flour. Wherever manufactured, Haxall flour is, and always has been, reduced by millstones or buhrs, but of late years, the middlings purifiers have been used in its manufacture, and as a matter of fact there is no essential difference between Haxall flour and flour made by any first-class roller mill of the same kind of wheat used at the Haxall mills.

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OPPORTUNITIES FOR WOMEN IN WASHINGTON, D. C.

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Graham, entire wheat, whole wheat, gluten, and various other special flours that are extensively advertised by their respective manufacturers may all be good and useful. Many, perhaps all, of them are desirable for the variety they afford in breadmaking. But white flour seems to supply a need that neither one or all of these special flours can fill; and there is no probability that it will ever be superseded in public favor by any of them.

The advocates of the different special flours set up such claims on behalf of their superior healthfulness that many are induced to use them on that account, but one grows tired of bread made of any of them, if obliged to use it daily, which is not the case with bread made of choice white flour. That, when properly made and perfectly baked, possesses a peculiar flavor highly acceptable to the average appetite, and can be eaten day after day at every meal, with a relish.

Flour made from wheat grown in different

localities, differs in color as well as in quality; but the best flour is generally of a rich cream shade, and has a slight granular or gritty feeling. Winter wheat has a much softer grain than spring wheat, and consequently makes a softer and less gritty flour. Quite as good bread can be made of flour manufactured from winter wheat, as of that manufactured from spring wheat, but the two varieties require to be handled in a different manner. Winter wheat flour absorbs less wetting than spring wheat flour, and requires more kneading than spring wheat flour does to yield bread of a choice quality; but more delicate cake and pastry can be made from winter wheat than from spring wheat flour, and what is known in the market as "pastry flour" is simply ordinary winter wheat flour.

There are a few brands of flour that will yield 136 pounds of bread to each 100 pounds of flour, but the average yield of flour of the best quality is about 133 pounds of bread to each 100 pounds of flour.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR WOMEN IN WASHINGTON, D. C.

BY MRS. EMILY L. SHERWOOD.

THE woman who aspires to seek an opportunity in Washington must realize that the capital of a great nation is, of necessity, a peculiar city, with a conglomerate background composed of lines from all the states converging at this common center; and that rules of life which work admirably at home will not be those of the conventional lines of Washington life.

The Washingtonian is late to bed and late to rise. The business day inside and outside of departments begins at 9 a. m. and ends at 4 p. m. Even mechanics work only eight hours; and this abundant leisure at each end of the day affords an ambitious woman ample opportunity to do a good many things worth doing. Let us suppose she has passed all the obstacles in the way of securing a government appointment, and there she is at last, behind a cherry desk, with a larger salary than she could possibly earn elsewhere for the same amount of time devoted to business,—six hours a day. Now what is she going to do with her leisure and her money? If there are others dependent upon her the salary will be none too large; or, if she is a

devotee to display in living or dress the boarding-house keepers and the dressmakers will get it pretty much all mortgaged to them before it is drawn fortnightly. But if she is a sensible young person she may take up the study of the profession of medicine, the law, or nursing, for there are two colleges open to women on an equality with men in Washington, the Columbian and Howard Universities. There are several women physicians in the city, graduates of these colleges, who are enjoying a successful practice. One of these was in the United States Treasury when she began her studies, and by careful management she supported herself and her two children through the three years of her medical course.

The Capitol and other public buildings are full of historic mementos, and afford a great opportunity to one who aspires to do more than look at the outside of things. The Congressional Library is the largest library in the country, and to the student of either sex its free reading room is a source of invaluable aid.

Already this generation of women begin to show what opportunity for obtaining a

higher education has done for them. Women's clubs throughout the country are numerous, especially in the cities, and most of them have originated in a desire for improvement in some direction. There are numerous Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circles in Washington, and never was there a place where a Chautauquan could enjoy more rich and varied opportunities for study. The Geological Survey invites a more thorough knowledge of all the natural sciences; the treasures of our national history, our explorations, art, and the work of artisans are stored in the National Museum halls,—a great school, full of object lessons on every subject pertaining to life in the Old and New World. The Smithsonian Institution supplements this collection with treatise and technical knowledge which cannot be found in such quantities anywhere else.

In literature, woman's opportunity is greater than in any other city of America for gathering material from life. All our national history begins or ends in Washington records; and official society affords kaleidoscopic views that are good material for the short story, poem, or novel. Success and high position with many failures present sharp contrasts in these shifting scenes of Washington life; and the keen observer, the ready writer, finds good intellectual material all the year round.

But Washington is not the best market for such wares. Even the great newspaper correspondents, the society writers of journalism, find that the best prices prevail in New York, Boston, and other large cities where the great dailies want everything fresh and newsy at any cost.

There are numerous clubs in Washington which afford the transient visitor healthful recreation, food for thought, or opportunity to meet the best people, who are not always found in "society."

The drives to the Soldiers' Home or to Arlington, with occasional pilgrimages to that delightful Mecca, Mt. Vernon, add to the opportunities which intelligent women are seeking, to know about things and places.

Washington is not a good place for a young and inexperienced woman to go without means of support or friends to receive her. Circumstances compel some to seek remunerative employment; and if they turn to Washington with longing eyes, let it be with a cool, clear head devoid of the nonsense of a possible grand marriage with some man in public life. Such things have been, but it is undignified and unwomanly to the verge of indelicacy for a woman deliberately to plan to catch a husband. In no city is so much freedom given to correspondents to search out and bring to light the motives and antecedents of newcomers. The seemingly brilliant stranger may enjoy a brief season of passing for what he assumes to be, but he is soon taken for what he is, and labeled accordingly.

For the earnest, modest, aspiring, and genuine woman Washington will afford abundant opportunity if she is patient, willing, observing, and tactful. There are lovely homes and kind hearts, churches and young people's unions that will cordially welcome her and support her even through trial and misfortune, but it all depends upon how she carries herself.

DAUGHTERS OF THE FATHERLAND.

BY MISS E. S. BRAINE.

THE problem which has been agitating American and English society during the last half of the present century, the Great Feminine Problem, as it may be termed, has scarcely raised a ripple in the placid waters of the Teutonic world.

In Germany the "Coming Woman" is still "coming," and one may search the magazines and journals of the Fatherland in

vain for articles with such headings as "What to do with our Girls," "Remunerative Employment for Ladies"; "Women as Lawyers, Physicians, House Decorators," and so forth.

The fact is, that, while the women of America and England, driven by stress of numbers and an irresistible impulse of progression, have overflowed abundantly into the territory of the opposite sex, their sisters in

Germany have remained strictly within bounds. Not theirs to pull up with eager hands the old landmarks or to tear down the ancient signposts with "thus far shalt thou go and no farther" written upon them.

Practically speaking, the women of Germany are precisely where they were a couple of centuries ago; like the brook they still "go on forever" with their baking and brewing, their mending and making, their cleaning and cooking.

Let no one despise the feminine virtue of housekeeping; but, if one may hazard such a reasonable suggestion, an *overdone* virtue is apt occasionally to prove oppressive.

German women are notable housekeepers and high priestesses of the kitchen; they sit, as a writer wittily remarks, enthroned upon a pedestal of "home baked virtues"; and for them, the salvation of every daughter of Eve lies within the limits of her larder and store cupboard.

Nowhere is the conviction that to fulfill her destiny a woman must marry, so rampant as in Germany. Teuton maidens are often engaged at a very early age; and a very binding affair is a German betrothal, second only in seriousness to marriage itself. It is published with a blast of trumpets so to say; announced in the local newspapers, communicated to all the friends and relations of the contracting parties, by means of printed cards, more or less elaborately designed. Among the lower orders, betrothals are sometimes announced from the pulpit, sandwiched in somewhere between the births, deaths, and marriages.

The moment a German youth and his beloved are engaged they become respectively Bride and Bridegroom, and these titles are theirs until the arrival of the happy day.

"May I introduce my Bridegroom to you?" says Lieschen or Pauline with a glow of satisfaction.

"This is my Bride's photograph," observes Max or Otto casually; and you notice that he wears a betrothal ring, according to the custom of his country.

There is a precision and definiteness about these terms that is quite refreshing; and it is much to be wished that we could introduce them or their equivalent into our own language.

How *are* our lovers to designate each other in the accents of their native tongue? The good old-fashioned "sweetheart" is not ad-

mirable in polite circles; the girl cannot speak of her future husband as "my young man," and the result is that she must either drag in a French term and call him her *fiancé* or she must chillingly describe him as "Mr. So-and-So," or "the gentleman to whom I am engaged."

The "bridegroom" experiences the same difficulty, and, considering the fact that the betrothed state is by no means uncommon among us, and that it occasionally lasts years, it is surprising that the want alluded to has not long since been supplied.

Marriage in the Fatherland is a matter requiring much arrangement; the country is a poor one, and there are so many men who must "marry money" or remain bachelors, that the girl with the dowry is the girl bound to get the most offers.

The military have a way of snapping up the heiresses both of their own country and of their neighbors'; and it is no unusual occurrence for a wealthy American or English maiden to pair off with a penniless German lieutenant of good birth. In plain, unvarnished language, she buys him; for, before the marriage ceremony can take place, the hero's debts have to be paid by *somebody*; it goes without saying that he has debts, for how is he to live as a lieutenant upon £80 a year? A certain sum has also to be deposited in the government funds; a prudent arrangement made in order to secure a safe though scanty provision for the widow, in the event of the soldier-husband falling on the field of battle, or being otherwise removed from this lower sphere.

In university towns it is wickedly whispered that the private lecturers who hope to be professors some day, have to marry the professorial daughters; that this is in fact the nearest byway to promotion.

A German young lady is never allowed to be alone with her betrothed; even when they go out walking, a couple of sisters or the Frau Mamma must go too. In the south of Germany when a betrothed pair make a round of duty calls, it is the custom for them to take some male friend in the character of chaperon. This individual, who usually drags behind and wears an expression of settled melancholy, goes by the suggestive nickname of the "straw-man"!

No doubt it is owing to the ascendancy of the apocryphal Mrs. Grundy that German maidens seldom have a "real good time."

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HOW TO RESTORE HEALTH.

They have a great many parties among themselves; choral societies, reading and working circles, where coffee and a large variety of cakes are to the fore; and they go to concerts and dances; but upon all occasions of "mixed assemblies" the intercourse between youths and maidens is very much superintended. At a ball, the instant a dance is over, your partner drops you as he would a hot potato, and altogether there is a formality about their social gatherings which strikes home with a chilly feeling to the heart of the spectator from "ither part," used to "ither ways."

The frank intercourse, the pleasant comradeship that is born of the racquet or the oar wielded upon long summer days; that species of open and frolicsome flirtation which begins with a joke and ends without a heartache,—this is unknown to the gentle housewifely daughters of the Fatherland.

Flirtation has been wittily described as "attention without intention"; now, in Germany, a very little attention is regarded as "intention"; and this has naturally the effect of establishing a ceremonious behavior which is not compatible with friendly and unrestrained social intercourse. Young men do not "drop in" with the last new song or the latest joke; if one of them did such a thing twice, inquiries would soon be made as to which of the daughters he was engaged or about to be engaged to; and things

would quickly be made rather unpleasant for him.

Enthusiasm in the right place is charming, but one cannot help experiencing an uneasy feeling that the gentle German ladies use their largest conversational coin too lavishly. They commence at the bottom of the scale with "wonderfully beautiful!" "exquisitely lovely!" "Thou dear heaven, but too enchanting!" consequently when there is something really worth exclaiming about, language can do no more for them, and they can but repeat the oft-told tale.

This, it is true, may be only the result of that delightful readiness to be pleased with simple pleasures, which is characteristic of the Germans as a nation. One rarely sees a German girl looking bored; and parties which an American or English girl would denounce as "awfully slow" are thoroughly enjoyed by the youthful *Fräuleins* who attend them. They do not expect so much, for one thing, and they are not accustomed to be treated as small princesses and have all their whims considered adorable. On the contrary, it has always been their part to run about and wait upon their men folk, who, each and all, have well-defined ideas upon the subject of "woman's sphere."

Will the day ever come when the gentle daughters of the Fatherland will find their allotted "sphere" too narrow for them?

HOW TO RESTORE HEALTH.

BY HERMINE WELTEN.

Translated from the "*Frauenberuf*" for "*The Chautauquan*."

PREPARATION for competency in taking care of the sick does not, as many people believe, necessitate long years of experience. It depends upon a comprehensive knowledge, a complete understanding of the functions of the body and a knack of applying the laws of nature thereto, together with an understanding of the ordinary care requisite to health.

Whoever would perform efficiently the difficult task of nursing the sick must first curb his belief in marvelous cures, in extraordinary means, and hearken only to the voice of reason; for what is necessary for the preservation of health is indispensable for the sick; and only he who exactly follows the

best directions for a general care of the health,—always of course with modifications in various cases of sickness,—can make pretensions to a noble fulfillment of duty.

Seven things are absolutely necessary to maintain or restore health: fresh air, light, warmth, rest, cleanliness, the correct selection and well-timed offering of food and drink. The lack of only one of these requisites may hinder the exercise of a physician's skill and bring to naught both good-will and wisdom.

When one enters the sick room, even among the better classes, usually a damp, hot air confronts him; the windows are hermetically sealed, the whole room is enveloped

in a mysterious darkness. It is not enough that the poor patient must be deprived for weeks perhaps of the sight of the green fields and of the quickening sunshine but they refuse him the enjoyment even of fresh air. Did people know that by this erroneous course they oppose the efforts for recovery exerted by nature, they would perhaps break down their prejudice, and allow the fresh air free entrance.

By a judicious airing is not understood the opening of all the windows for a few minutes followed by a complete closing. To purify the air most effectually a continual though imperceptible current must be kept up, of course without the least draft, a thing which may be accomplished most advantageously by the introduction of a window-frame furnished with hair cloth. This arrangement in the summer has the additional advantage of keeping out troublesome insects.

In waiting on the sick, a coming and going cannot entirely be avoided, but it is the capable nurse's duty to see that no draft arises from the opening of doors. In this respect she will be safe to regard her ward above every demand, and should take care that the window is closed before the door is allowed to be opened, or, better yet, she should see that a folding screen is provided.

The principle of cleanliness is too little valued. Dusty floors, dusty woodwork and furniture are sources of vitiation to the atmosphere, seriously endangering the condition of the sick. Every morning the floor should be cleansed carefully with a wet cloth; in like manner the cornices should be treated—for nothing is more irrational than wiping off the dry dust which immediately is scattered in equal distribution over the whole room.

In every sick room a temperature should prevail agreeable to the patient, usually 64° F. on an average. But if there is an unusually high temperature of the blood, as in scarlet fever, it would be well not to have the temperature of the room above 59° F., at the same time freeing the patient from the burdensome comfortable, which should be exchanged for lighter coverings, and after this precaution the reduction of the fever by cold baths is useless. It is wise in all fever diseases to banish feather beds because they act as injurious conductors of heat and increase and conserve the warmth of the already overheated body, thus exerting a bad effect on

the system. Since nearly all fever diseases are accompanied by an actual decrease in bodily temperature, special care must be taken with such patients. The nurse should frequently use a thermometer to note the decrease from the normal heat and should watch the patient's hands and feet in order to forestall the approaching chill with warm water bags, warm cloths, and warm drinks.

It is cruelty to assign the darkest corner of the room to the bed of the patient, where he must always stare at the cold wall or watch the flies walking over the coverlet, where nothing occurs to drive away the troublous thoughts which torture his sick brain. Nor must one go to the other extreme and place him in the hot sunshine, especially in affections of the eye and in cases of sickness complicated with fever, where the irritability of the brain extends not only to the intellectual powers, but is in sympathy with all the other senses. In such cases a radiation of light through dark curtains suffices.

Thoughtful care, most comprehensive precaution, greatest repose and self-control, attention, ingenuity, and endurance are indispensable qualifications of every nurse, and if these are not possessed as birthrights it were better to keep out of the unspeakably difficult and toilsome profession.

A sick person is as helpless as a baby, he needs the tenderest indulgence, the most affectionate consideration, and continual assistance. All this the nurse must allow for, and not permit him to want for any service however lowly.

Water is to be obtained in every house, yet many times one would think that the use of it could be had only for much money. People have a real horror of bathing the forehead of a sick person with water, and yet they could do no greater service to one on whose brow the sweat forms in great drops than frequently to afford him this refreshment.

A better insight into this matter is pressing necessary, and it is very desirable that more emphasis be laid upon a thorough change of wearing apparel and of bedclothes than is common practice. If one would consider that the moisture emitted by the lungs and skin, by sick persons is given off in much greater quantities, and that this impurity lodges in the clothing, the necessity and duty of a thorough changing and of ventilation would be evident. Of course all

clothing always must be perfectly dry and properly warmed through.

In respect to food an able nurse can display her circumspection; for it is her business to observe how the food agrees with the patient and to discover the right instant when the patient cares to take the needed nourishment.

The care of the sick demands correct judgment in regard to "better or worse," and recognition of every change. It is incredible what perverted answers many times are given in reply to the physician's inquiries and uncertainty and vagueness of observations on the patient's condition have in many cases led the physician to a totally incorrect conclusion.

The multitude of annoying questions such as "Do you want anything?" is not due to a want of devotion on the part of the attendant, but she lacks—what most should characterize her—the power of sharp observation.

Most nurses believe that in caring for the physical welfare of their patients they have done their full duty; while in fact they have only satisfied the smallest requirement, for with the avoidance of physical discomfort they should guard against affection of the

mind. Body and mind cannot be separated; they react upon each other.

At the first moment it may perhaps seem that the presence of friends induces a brighter frame of mind; but this impression is a delusion; for often a short time after, apathy takes place, swoons, and other calamities. One cannot protest too loudly against this bad habit of visiting, and in the interest of the sufferer the entrance into the sick room of any uncalled-for person should be strictly forbidden.

It never should happen that the patient is left alone, even for a few minutes, for in his feverish condition very often his bright moments are interrupted with delirious visions, when he might do violence to himself.

When all danger is past and returning life is felt, watchful eyes must be kept on the patient, for in the course of convalescence with the least excess of food or drink or the smallest transgression of dietary prescriptions, the trouble will return to the organism. Then with due observance to Horace's doctrine of the golden mean, the convalescent may be permitted to busy himself with some light employment at short intervals, as a moderate diversion will influence his nerves favorably and wholesomely.

WHAT NEXT IN WOMEN'S SOCIETIES?

BY MARGARET W. NOBLE.

SOcial progress ever traces a zigzag course. For some reason humanity abhors a straight line as intuitively as nature abhors a vacuum. The mountain top, Eutopia, is gazed upon as a goal by many eyes, but bands starting for it choose the most diverse paths, all shunning the straight though boulder-marked way. Humanly speaking, the longest way round is the shortest way home.

Women all know they have been tempted into the course they have taken; they know that ever and ever they have sat in the inside corner, have had no idea of measures or men proposed, abiding by what explanations their lords might vouchsafe. Sometimes means and ends did not seem to meet; sometimes progress seemed at a standstill; sometimes they have remarked at breakfast, to the best of husbands, that certain reforms were

needed, but at such times they have been protectingly reassured by those best of husbands, that they should not bother their innocent little heads about things that men will see to; then they have gone down to do their marketing, still wondering.

They wondered why saloons were allowed to be, on the way of their boys to school; why city efforts to help the poor seemed to help only city officials; why their college-bred sisters were paid less for the same work than the male teacher; why, in the choice of school board officials whose duties were only a part of their own, they were forbidden a voice; why defenseless girls orphaned, or worse, if fourteen years of age, or younger in some states, were not protected from villainy; why in certain states a vicious father may dispose in whatever way he will, however infamous, of his children even before birth,

without the sanction or interference of their mother; finally, why, if clubs and societies are the means among men of securing the blessings of mutual protection, social enjoyment, philanthropy, and civil progress—why would not organization make more attainable the objects stirring the minds and hearts of intelligent women.

This course of reasoning followed by thousands of women, large hearted and with the light of freedom sparkling in their eyes, has borne bountiful fruit. The last twenty years have seen the definitive term "Woman's" prefixed to more societies than have been designated by that distinction in the world's history previously. Cities, towns, and hamlets have been harvested and winnowed yielding an ever increasing crop labeled Woman's Home and Foreign Missionary Societies, Woman's Christian Temperance Union, Woman's Suffrage Association, Woman's Protective Agencies, Woman's Relief Corps, Woman's National Indian Association, Woman's Press Clubs, National Association for the Advancement of Women, King's Daughters, Deaconess Societies, Daughters of the Revolution, and lastly the Lady Managers, without whom the World's Fair Organizations were deemed incomplete, besides all the local societies for women, literary, social, esthetic, philanthropic, professional, educational, industrial, hygienic, and dress reform, sprinkling the country, whose force and influence have been greatly strengthened by the recent Federation of Women's Clubs. The list of these feminine organizations might be enlarged; but its character would remain as noble and unselfish.

Probably the highest compliment, based on statistics, that could be paid to women would be traced by the uniformly elevating character of their organizations. In the astoundingly short space of two-score years, after centuries of conventional and enforced inactivity, woman has sprung into an organized sisterhood for the dissemination and establishment of throngs of new ideas all her own, purposing her own good and that of the race. So, in a like span of time has the van of domestic, social, and civic progress zigzagged from the point of no organization, public spirit, or intelligence among women, to the higher extreme of multiplied and almost redundant organizations of the feminine mold; declaring to the world first of all that it is women who project and effect their aims.

Through these societies reforms which hitherto have been espoused, or at any rate championed, by all mankind, have been relegated to one sex. What previous or other endeavor to restrict the manufacture and sale of liquors, to instruct youth in scientific temperance principles, and to redeem those already in the toils of the rum demon compares with that of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union? How much does the Christian Church do for home and foreign missions, outside the Woman's Mission bands? Has any one ever heard of a male society to secure female suffrage? In such manner the purposes of women's societies might be examined throughout, showing that where she has entered a field of unselfish effort, it has speedily been abandoned to her. Indeed, so unmistakably do the women of to-day gravitate toward organization, for culture of every kind, a famous Boston divine prophesies that another score of years will see culture and mental breadth preponderate on the feminine side.

Is the present condition as described tending toward that result? Is that result desirable? "Yes," to the first question, "no," should respond to the second. There may be blame attached to women on this score, but there is also extenuation. When a spirited horse in a tandem team, having the rear position and as much work as the head, finds itself placed abreast, is it to be punished for prancing ahead a pace or two to experience the feelings of even a slight reversal of conditions? A wise hand will give the rein for a time.

The question as it relates at present to women's societies, is, whether it is not the part of prudence and long-sighted wisdom for the eager, unchecked spirit of lately recognized woman to pause a moment with a view to enlisting the assistance of the other able half of humanity in her scheme of amelioration? Usurpation by her of such efforts would mean calamity to her.

How many thousands of women through the land already represent their husbands at church? How many thousands of men are content solely to foot the bills, referring all questions outside of party politics to their wives, who, they say, "have views on such subjects"?

Nevertheless the co-operation of this important masculine half of creation is indispensable to the accomplishment of any reform

proposed by women, however badly needed. Women's societies for the advancement of woman, as well as of common good, cannot become effective until they become common in gender. The solution of many questions is a burden now resting upon numerous women's organizations. Burdens, when once shouldered by willing hands are allowed to remain where taken up, consequently it is a demonstrable fact that the assumption of reforms and missions by the rapidly uniting womanhood of the land will result if maintained, in their being left to carry them alone, rendering highest success impossible; in other words, will result in a monopoly of a product for which there is no market. Is the remedy to be found in the abandonment by women of progressive movements? Such an idea is as impossible to consider at this stage of development as it is unnecessary. The burden is precious, the carrier a willing one, but there should be two.

It matters not whether men have generously or gingerly besought admittance to the societies whose objects are championed by women. They are needed. Their cooperation should be sought for. Woman's purpose stands in need of man's strength to form a combination working out the highest good of our people.

There is no further crucible awaiting woman's societies as such; their permanence and influence are no longer questioned; however, their decadence as distinctive woman's societies is to be wished for. Their purposes should now be taken from the hothouse of feminine fostering and transplanted out-

doors to receive support and nutriment from masculine elements. The time has arrived when women's societies should no longer be women's wards, but their objects, a common charge of all. They have furnished their foster guardians a new development, their longer retention in the care of one sex would be at their sacrifice.

Women's societies will reach their highest goal when the prefatory "woman's" is discarded. Exclusive organization on the part of one sex has reached the extreme where the upward turn now leads back, on the line of male inclusion—meaning simply the union of husbands and wives in the common cause of benefiting humanity. Doubtless thousands of busy men to-day, apathetic regarding general human welfare, would bound to their place at the wheel if appealed to by wives converted to the new mission and needing brawny aid. The best way to disarm an opponent is to throw the cause on his hands appealing for his support.

Let such titles as "Woman's Suffrage Association" give place to the "United Society for Woman's Franchise."

There is no fear but that the modest source from which these benefactions have sprung will be ever and gratefully remembered. American progeny is not ungrateful.

But in the full realization of social reforms accomplished only by the addition of man's effective power, women working for that end can well afford to relinquish the initiatory which at most can no more than propose a higher mission for them and a new progress for all.

SEAWOMEN.

BY MARGARET B. WRIGHT.

"HOW do you pass your time?"

To seawomen this is a most familiar question. No society, no housework, no shopping, no garden, no entertainments, no fads, esthetic, athletic, philanthropic, above all no *news*; what can hapless woman do with much of her time save bemoan it?

One of these women, however, always answers, "Walk, read, work,—and be seasick." She creates thus universal surprise. That such an old salt as she should consciously

have a stomach is as surprising as that shipwomen ever work or walk at all.

Truth is, many of them never set sail again after a stay in port without paying tribute to Neptune. Even in the very heart of a voyage the tyrant not un seldom rises up to exact his dues, and more too.

Some of the toughest old masculine tars are levied upon in the same way. They, however, always pronounce it "biliousness," and accuse the pork or the pudding.

Radiant vistas of foreign travel with brief

interludes of lullaby billows, pearly sails, snowy decks, steamer chairs, and novels, are the shore woman's picture of seafaring,—a picture that has lured many a fresh girl to a briny fate. The polished brasses of summer yachts, the gay decks of summer steamers, impress the imagination with the picturesque of a life on the ocean wave, and common sense is not always present to whisper that merchant ships are mere toilers of the sea, and compared with summer craft as Vulcan to Ariel.

"Often," says one salt, "we shipwomen do not leave our stived-up little cabins for days. That cabin is our home: the deck is out of doors as much as a windy street or a rainsoaked garden is. We are not perched high above the waves, you must remember, as the summer voyager is, like a wind-buoyed cloud. In our cabins we see only its walls, while on the main deck the bulwarks are higher than our heads. Thus really only a lurch of the ship gives us a full view of the water with which we are cheek by jowl all the time. The waves do not seem to bear us triumphantly on as Guido's Hours bear Aurora, as foaming couriers Aphrodite. They are much more likely to hiss contempt and arch their green backs at us. Even the sea recognizes social distinction, you see, and is not half as likely to drench the first-class steamer passenger as the humble seawoman. When I read the glowing descriptions of the sea with which literature is full I always know them written on *terra firma* and from deceptive memory. Charles Lamb is the land-lubber who has no illusions, no affectations on this subject and he calls the sea 'Antagonist of Earth.'

"We seawomen have not the artistic sense that makes one study subtle effects of light and color; or the literary one to infuse the hollow of a billow or the comb of a wave, the flit of a cloud or the crinkle of a breeze with spiritual expression enough to fill a volume of poems. Even if we had, time would make it stale to us; and the decks are tolerable only in weather neither too boisterous nor too ardent. Not much of such weather is experienced in rounding the Horn or beating about Good Hope. My voyages have usually been these, hence I am almost as much an indoors woman as if I had wedded a land-lubber instead of my sea dog."

The seawoman makes much preparation for long voyages. Now and then a bridal

voyage carries a piano but rarely a subsequent one. In ship space pianos not only assume cathedral proportions but the salt humidity soon casts out their vibrant spirits and leaves them to groans and wheezing. The true music of the sea makes an Æolian lyre of shrouds and rigging, till one easily imagines all the poor creatures ever drowned gathered in viewless, chanting congregations. The sensitive seawoman grows in time almost to separate and distinguish these aerial voices, to recognize the infinite, eternal longing of nature winding in and out with the wail of nature's infinite, eternal despair.

Books go to sea in great numbers. They are a random collection and a motley. The latest literary lions are not among them. The seawoman, however fine her natural taste, is not in touch with the reading fashions of the day. Foreign ports witness a lively interchange of reading matter and books are great voyagers. Upon the rolling deep to-day, for instance, is a "Jane Eyre" that has seven times put a girdle round the world.

The initial chapter of a voyage is often illuminated with birds and flowers. Plucked by her fate into watery and aerial space, the seawoman gives this pathetic impression of clutching at Mother Earth and carrying a portion of her fresh raiment in hungry hands as she is compelled away. One seawoman has carried canaries from Liverpool to Bombay, from Amsterdam to the old Chinchas, and back again. In the wildest tumult, when the seawoman herself groveled upon the cabin floor the most abject thing alive, and even the cats hissed and spat disapprobation, their song pierced the gloom, lifting her spirits to courage and hope again. "The fiercer the blasts the blither their song," she said. "Almost the weakest things that live, they are the only ones that seem to enjoy a storm at sea."

Only seawomen know the affection with which plants are watched and tended at sea while they bless with dreams of fair familiar gardens; or the sadness, almost of a burial, with which they are cast out when the inevitable blight falls upon them at last.

"My Lady Janes went overboard to-day," wrote another salt. "I cried as they drifted away, for they were from the bush at the side-door at home. I was glad that at least their grave was not cold, and that the Gulf Stream was their fate and not the stinging Baltic. As I cast them slowly over, one by one, they left a faint perfume in the air. I was reminded of what

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SEAWOMEN.

I had just read, that King Oberon's attendants knew the doors of heaven were opened by the sweet smell which filled the chamber when he died."

In some faded old sea journals written in a cramped hand as if the pen were tightly clinched, in dim ink upon old-fashioned blue paper, spectral things that seem to tell their story in a faint, far whisper, we learn of a sea-woman, as it were, "at home." The writer of these journals has "followed the sea" many years. It is the grave of her children, she believes it will be her own. She has drunk deep from the goblet of sorrow nor found it golden, nor yet has she set it down.

We read of her "housekeeping" on board ship:

"Once a week I go to the galley to consult with the cook. Much as I should like to I cannot do any cooking myself. I may not even converse with the sailors and amuse myself with hearing their stories and of their wild lives. My Mariner is a strict disciplinarian to begin with, and he knows of old, the jealousy with which sailors watch any encroachments of the 'ship's old woman.' The cook looks after ordinary dishes; the steward, a Bengalese, has a knack at sweets. To the latter belongs the care of dining-room and table. The sweeping and dusting of two, sometimes three rooms as well as the making of our beds come to me. Usually I go over the steward's work for it is certain that men have not the eye for dirt that women have. I am at the disadvantage of not having my own servants and house, but of being a boarder upon, not with, our owners. Even did we own the ship entirely instead of a few shares I could not dismiss a cook in mid-ocean though he fed us galley slush and cold pizen'. Ours is a ge'man of color whose white Xantippe drove him off the face of the earth. He is so good a Christian that he never allows us a dish till he has asked a blessing upon it, having remarked that we waive that observance in the cabin. Once when the steward was in driving haste for the breakfast fishballs, the steward cried,

"'Hold your bressen for dem griddle cakes, Joe. Dese was bressed yisterdee.'

"'De fish was bressed of de Lawd,' answered cook, piously, 'an' so was de taters an' de pork. But as fishballs de Lawd ain't never yet shed de glory of His countenance upon 'em!'

"As the steward manages the most of our sweet dishes Joe was compelled to see many of the n go to the cabin 'unbressed of de Lawd.' This grieved him sore, till it occurred to him to 'bress' them in the oven while the steward's

back was turned. Whenever we heard an altercation in the galley just before dinner, we knew that Joe had surreptitiously opened the oven door 'to let de glory of de Lawd in upon de pudding.'"

Many sewing machines go to sea, for making a new garment is easier than washing an old one. The journals tell that their writer still clings to her ancient one for the very reason that its familiar clatter is a comfort amid the hoarse monotones of the sea.

"I would not exchange it for the best noiseless one in the world; for then I should lose many a glimpse of a sunny New England kitchen fragrant with bubbling 'biled dish.' Such glimpses are too heavenly to lose in the roaring forties or while somersaulting over the equator."

In tumbling weather fancy work appears. She finds a crochet needle the only manageable thing when the bowsprit scrapes the sky. We may be sure that the barometer is low when we read, "Began another sacque for some unknown baby."

January 12 off Good Hope dates a record unbroken except by dinners and "W" for many weeks. The diarist rises at seven, breakfasts, and goes on deck at half-past.

"After a breath of fresh air I tidy my room and care for my birds, which finishes my household cares for the day. I manage to crawl through the day with sewing, reading, and a slight thrill of excitement at finding a new pudding for dinner, or an unexpected can of green peas. At five p. m. I go on deck again to remain until tea at six; after tea again on deck until eight. I read aloud to my Ancient Mariner until nine, when I go to bed happy if we are nearer port than we were the night before; thankful if the wind has not driven us back two days or a week."

It is only by an effort of the will that she keeps up her lifelong habit of an hour's constitutional on deck every pleasant evening. It is a constitutional pure and simple, and taken not for the imagination's sake, but the liver's. No change of scenery takes place from stem to stern. The twilight is exactly the same as ten thousand other twilights at sea, and the stars come out with exactly their usual blink in exactly their usual places. It is chiefly when the dear moon looks down upon her, as it looked down in her youth on earth, that her heart swells with memories of all that lies between that warm earth-life and this windy floating be-

tween two inconstant elements. She writes:

"The poetic moon might make me lunatic enough to imagine myself a modern Francesca da Rimini floating forever in a chill Inferno. But one glimpse of John's pea-jacket and ragged trousers and my aged flannel gown, to say nothing of the four hundred pounds between us, puts such fancies to confusion."

With all the bravery of these journals and their writer's determination to preserve the very stiffest of upper lips, the wordless expression of loneliness and longing is very evident; the equal hunger for a sight of loved faces and for a break in the monotony of days a hundred and twenty like one, save for "*W.*" Beaten by adverse winds, lashed by howling seas, paralyzed by treacherous calms, tossed like a feather, pounded like an anvil; inch by inch this shipwoman has crawled her way during four months from Bombay to Cardiff.

During all these leaden-footed days, Cardiff, ugly, smutty Cardiff, has shone upon the journal's pages fairer than any city of romance, a triumphant city, with domes of pearl and pinnacles of flame, deep in the sunset sky; for from Cardiff to *Home* is but a tiny strip of shining sea!

At Cardiff the journal is ominously silent. Later the next record reads:

"On our return voyage to India."

The seawoman writes not why this bitter disappointment, nor even names its bitterness. Only through the dull mist that broods over the subsequent pages in spite of the heroine's efforts at good cheer, may one imagine to see that her Ancient Mariner had not the courage to spare his stay and comforter.

How be more the shuttlecock of blind fate than the seawoman is? The changing moon, the sunshine of an April day, are constancy itself compared with the power that makes or undoes her.

"Never," says the old journal, "have I prayed for my life with more fervor than I have entreated the wind. If all mention of that fateful power were erased from my journals, they would shrink to a mere fraction of their present size, even though I never write the word itself, but indicate it as occult and unspeakable, by the single symbol '*W.*' That character represents either *Weal* or *Woe*!

"What a sunny glow, years afterwards, illumines a page upon which I have written, 'Light trades eight knots an hour for twenty hours!'

With what a sorry face the page looks up at me where is recorded '*Head W.* No progress.' Afloat the *W* is our fate. No wonder we worship it as heathen, with alternate reverence and reviling. Not only are we half beside ourselves with desire to escape the monotony, but a long voyage is an expensive one, every extra day adding heavily to the expense of our cargo."

With one more extract we will lay these journals down, glad to know that our brave seawoman has come to her haven at last in that famed refuge of seafarers, Rivermouth, where safely at anchor she grows warm in mellow sunshine, remembering tempest and calm no more with dread but with sweet pity for those who still are encompassed by them.

"How rejoiced I am to be again in the track of homeward bound vessels. It is like going into a bright street after staring for months at a blank wall. In weeks we have not seen a sail. Between sea and sky has not been a visible object save ourselves. Nobody on shore can imagine the comforts we poor seafarers find in seeing the lights of another vessel, even though an unknown or a foreign one. We know that some of our fellow beings are on board, though we do not see them, and the knowledge warms us with imaginary companionship almost as good as the real. To pass near enough in the daytime to dip flags makes me imagine all the rest of the day that I have indulged in some brilliant social dissipation. The veriest fleeting film upon the horizon draws me on deck. Often I watch a sail till I ache all over with the tension, although my heart laughs that men see us, as we see them, and are cheered as we are. Those distant sails seem almost as unreal as the *Flying Dutchman*, as all the phantom ships that float through romance and poetry. Still I people them with human beings, and always with women and children, mothers with their little ones about them and that atmosphere of picturesque domesticity that Perugino delights in and Raphael immortalized.

"Remoteness always idealizes; nowhere so much as at sea, where the dingiest of Newcastle colliers seems a mystic argosy freighted with sweet hopes, fair love, dear dreams, and only the filmiest of pains and fears.

"When a sail, however vague, is in sight, the glass on our ship will not turn away while she remains visible. When she fades at last into the mystery out of which she came, we bid her farewell with an overwhelming sense of loneliness. A renewed realization of the awful solitude which holds us captive till God's sweet earth once more shall set us free."

EDITOR'S OUTLOOK.

THE ETHICS OF STORY-TELLING.

THREE theories of the basis of art have been most prominently advanced. One of them, which is as old as Greek literature, has been clearly defined by Edgar A. Poe, who saw the "creation of beauty" at the end of every true art impulse. Théophile Gautier gave expression to the theory, also old, of "art for art's sake," which signifies that the end justifies the means and that the artist is to be hampered by no mere moral limitations in his struggle toward formulating his conception. The third theory is that of contemporary realism, by which art is defined as the transcript of nature without idealization or special selection with a view to presenting extraordinary combinations.

It will be seen at a glance that none of these views of art contemplates the ethics of the subject. Poe and Gautier expressly resented any moral restrictions, and the theory of the realists is based upon the assumption that everything that is true to life is moral.

The art of fiction, or, more properly speaking, the art of story-telling, is, perhaps, of all the arts the most universal in its human appeal. From the most ancient times its chief purpose has been to amuse, and it has afforded, in one form or another, a large part of the mental recreation of all peoples. Story-telling precedes the art of writing; some of the most interesting and fascinating strains of fiction have made their way into literature through oral tradition. The tale, the romance, the novel in some form, has always been recognized as a human need and the taste for it has grown apace with enlightened civilizations. It goes with the saying that an appeal so universal has not failed to react upon the human race and to influence largely the development of mankind. It has been a moral force tearing down and building up for good or for evil.

Earnest, conscientious thinkers who take a broad view of life and of the details of force that control its trend feel how powerful fiction-reading is as a modifier and specializer of moral sentiment, and how tremendous is its influence in the formation of human character. "We grow like what we contem-

plate" is especially true in the formative period of life—the years between twelve and thirty-five—and it would be hard to set a bound to the effect of fiction-reading during that period. Next to actual personal contact with people is the contact with the *dramatis personæ* of the fiction that we read. If genius sets its fine fascination in these characters they will influence us as much, or almost as much, as would actual living people doing and saying what is represented in the story.

This being admitted, how can the story-teller evade the responsibility of a moral agent? We do not project the didactic question, nor do we suggest the need of goody-goody stories. We drive at the question of personal influence and personal responsibility. What one does by one's agent is one's own act. The story is the story-writer's agent. If it is a doer of evil its deeds are to be referred to the writer.

The ethical problem seems to be: How far can the story-maker go in handling evil without becoming amenable to the moral law? We think it is plain that evil cannot be honestly handled by the artist for the mere sake of presenting it artistically. To admit that the story-teller may lead us to admire the character and to enjoy the company of men and women whose lives are given over to all manner of moral obliquity is to admit, tacitly at least, that we may safely associate with and admire such people in actual life. If evil communications corrupt good manners in our social experiences, the same is true in our literary experiences.

It seems to us that in good fiction evil must appear as a foil for good; that it must be set over against righteousness so as to make black black indeed and white purely white.

The story-teller need have no express moral hobby to ride posthaste; his tale will be all the better if told with the pure love of story-telling; but we may be quite sure that his taste is unsound if he chooses a salacious story to tell and gives it the unction of personal rehearsal. Here, indeed, is where we would draw the line. Evil can be used by the artist with clean hands and to wholesome effect by contrasting it with a healthy, solid projection of good. The chief trouble with

current realism is that it does not do this; but chooses to set hopeless evil and nerveless commonplace side by side without any triumphant moral heroism to dominate or neutralize it.

The ethics of fiction shines in the character, the moral nature of the story, more than in the ostensible or even the actual, moral purpose of the author. It is the general effect that the work is likely to produce when read by the aggregate of readers, which must be a large element of the test.

Nor is the author's responsibility lessened by such a preface as Rousseau wrote for *La Nouvelle Héloïse*. A bad story must not be flung into the laps of old and young merely labeled: "Bad, don't read." No story, written as mere fiction, should be so unclean that a girl's hands will be soiled by touching it.

This does not imply that all fiction must be written down to the taste or to the needs of young girls. The scope of story-telling is as broad as life and the gamut of human experiences is open to the artist's selection. What is required by sound ethics is that the selection shall be made under the guidance of an enlightened and eminently sane conscience and that the story shall, in its artistic and moral trend, comport with the best impulses of our civilization.

REPUBLICAN SOUTH AMERICA.

OPPOSITE coasts of South America have recently been the scene of separate conflicts between rulers and people, presenting a panoramic succession of most perplexing events in the two foremost of trans-Panama republics. Before the Pan-American Congress occurred it is doubtful whether situations even so dramatic, would have occasioned more than a ripple of interest in this country. In the closer linking of all American republics which followed that conference a concussion in one link conveys a tremor the length of the chain through the cord of sympathy if not financial interest.

Another resultant from the same Congress, the establishment of the Bureau of American Republics, has led to a systematic inquiry among occidental republics, concerning the products, needs, business opportunities, and fields for industries afforded by each. Trade relations and friendly intercourse will thus

inevitably be stimulated, capital invested in neighboring countries affording a sound basis on which to figure governmental friendliness.

The progress of southern republics, frowned upon by transatlantic monarchists, affords the strongest cause for mutual support between the two Americas.

In the recent broils of two governments it has been at times difficult to estimate true conditions from conflicting statements. Suddenly on the Chilian coast the idol of the liberal party, the leader for years in every popular reform which made the name republican more than a shell, the man under whom Chili became the only South American country able to extend its conquests over other territory—suddenly this man is accused of becoming a tyrant, the nullifier of his own reforms, is rebelled against, forced to fight, overcome, a fugitive, cut off from every escape, and finding himself hated as the bitterest enemy of his country he destroys himself with the passionate despair characteristic of his race.

The result of this civil conflict is a depleted treasury, industries almost paralyzed, commerce badly crippled by an almost total destruction of the merchant marine, depreciated exchange, and a robust war debt. This condition is the simple calamity following a war whose only civil object and result were to oust one president, and, after an interim of junta rule, to install another, since which event the internal government of the country seems to be resumed on the same basis as before. It is hard to realize that Balmaceda was a foe to liberalism, as represented; however the hard logic of events renders such discussion useless at the present date, and friends of his reform measures may find comfort in that none of those so far, have been abrogated.

At the same time, a drama remarkably similar, in some respects, is being enacted on the east side.

The reaction which two years ago abolished the empire of Brazil and exiled old Emperor Dom Pedro, placed a man, first as a provisional head, then as an elected president of a reform government. Da Fonseca, then a great favorite, chose his cabinet and applied himself, with no small success, to those innovations which were to make Brazil republican in deed as well as in name. Steady advances were made. Almost in a flash

after the hapless sequel to Balmaceda's defeat, the Brazilian Congress arrays itself defiantly, calls the president a dictator, is dismissed, appeals to the country, then a precipitate train of events plunges the country into martial rule, open rebellion, armed secession, expulsion of the president, and to crown the climax—a quiet subsidence under Fonseca's successor, Peixotto, no changes being even demanded in the governmental code; indeed the most serious manifestation is a breaking out of disaffection in some provinces which may be accounted for by the presence of a handful of imperialists crafty enough to turn the dissatisfaction of ardent but blind republicans to their own account.

Possibly abuses were committed by both executives. As likely is it, that they were misunderstood by the hot-headed, over-watchful legislators associated with them. Opposition did not proceed primarily from the people, who in both countries were finally opposed, perhaps because of ready mistrust of those in power.

Yet under the administrations of Balmaceda and Da Fonseca, their countries experienced advances whose leaders should reap a full gratitude of the people.

Under Fonseca, Brazil secured the separation of church and state, civil marriage, popular suffrage, laws to regulate elections, and other republican measures. Balmaceda advocated for Chili non-interference of church in state affairs, extension of public schools, and construction of public works developing the country, all liberal policies.

Both countries caught eagerly at the advances, embodied them in law, but their advocates are fallen.

Herein lies a quality difficult if not impossible for us to understand. Anglo-Saxon Jonathan has never seen his political idol crumble nor a liberator or reformer develop into a despot. Consequently he looks with grave concern at his sister republics and is not sure they will survive such vicissitudes. Both are undoubtedly exposed to reactionary elements and are at present financially floundering.

Jonathan may calm himself.

These sisters have jealously retained every feature of republicanism bequeathed to them.

Latin and Saxon ways, however, differ. Among Latin peoples there is a flux and ebb

of popular favor; one day carries a leader on its crest to be stranded the next by suspicion. It took France a very short time to guillotine Louis XVI. but a very long time to establish a republic.

Anglo-Saxons move with a more steady pace.

Moreover, the knowledge of free institutions cannot be expected to spread so rapidly south as north. Our climate invigorates the mind, stimulates progress; that which ripens coffee and sweetens it, relaxes mental grasp as well as physical energy. The growth of republicanism south of us will consequently vary from our own. Outbreaks, downfalls, and uprisings may furnish pyrotechnics to the political horizon, but each upheaval leaves a glow in whose light better progress is made. Men may be sacrificed but not the republic. The Brazilian congress was never so representative of a republican constituency as now.

In the present flurry between the United States and Chili, that country desires nothing so much as to prove that she is not only a most inflexible republic, but an aggressive one. The cause for friction on her part is not in the *Itata* affair nor in the American view of asylum rights nor in the Baltimore episode. Before any of these incidents had occurred, the Chilean delegates at the Pan-American Congress had shown active opposition to propositions made by the United States delegates. The cause of this attitude also explains the events alluded to.

This is no more nor less than jealousy on the part of Chili of an older and bigger member of the family. Acknowledged the light weight champion among the younger set across the isthmus, the young athlete would like to establish a prowess among heavy weights. Undoubtedly ignorance of the caliber of her present antagonist would account for some tantalizing episodes. Up to a certain point the United States can afford to remain good-natured and even congratulate ambitious youth on such vigor. But there are limits which must be observed. Having been lenient it may yet be the part of dignity to frill our western border with forts. Such a premonitory symptom might suggest to the overbold aggressor the unpleasantness of trifling; if not, a good flogging would be the most healthful remedy.

A good omen is portended by it all—the strength and spread of American republics.

HOW TO LIVE WITH OTHERS.

A MOVEMENT has been started to make New York a better place to live in, with the ultimate object of making the whole world a better place to live in. It is a movement in which everybody who reads *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* ought to join, and to which he can contribute valuable, nay, essential aid.

Let him begin in his own community and in his own family or circle of society; but, first of all, he must begin with himself, for the only way to make the world a better place to live in is for each individual to make himself a better person to live with. How to live with others is therefore the great question for the decision of every human being. In its answer is involved the solution of the problems which vex the social philosophers, and to enable men to settle it is the prime object of Christianity.

The broad Christian rule is to do to others as we would have them do to us; but its application to the large and the minute affairs of life and to every detail of social intercourse is the perplexing matter. Superficially it is obeyed by the laws and usages of polite society. They compel the sacrifice of individual selfishness for the common benefit. We do not snatch our food from our fellows, however hungry we may be, but prefer our brethren by first offering them the meat. We do not expend our superior strength in jostling and putting aside the weak, but make way for them for the very reason that they are weak and need the compensation of our indulgence. We bow to our friends as if we were ready to put ourselves under subjection to them. We step aside that they may take precedence of us in their entrances and departures. In love preferring one another is the Christian rule which polite society obeys in the letter, however neglectful of its spirit. It is the essence of good breeding.

So far, then, civilized and refined people have learned to smoothen the path of social intercourse; but when it comes to the countless details of life and the little friction of association between human beings in all their relations, the question of how to live with others may become distressingly complicated with other questions of duty and loyalty to truth and conviction. The self-respect must be preserved at all hazards. Personal dignity, also, has its rightful claims. Duties which we owe to one cannot be sacri-

ficed for the pleasure of another. Though falsehood be more palatable than truth, we must prefer the truth. We cannot be treacherous to principle in order to win approbation. Those are obvious requirements; but they do not compel us to be self-asserting, and they are not inconsistent with the best consideration for the same qualities and demands on others, though they be radically opposed to our own.

If we begin with the application of the rule to the simplest routine of daily existence the extension of it to all the affairs of life will become easier. The most trying place in which to start is the home, the family itself, and yet the home is the great school of manners and for the education of the heart. The very certainty of responsive family affection may easily develop disregard for the restraints and requirements of the wholesome rule. It is using a dangerous license to assume that because this affection is natural, and is tolerant, forgiving, and charitable, it cannot be abused, and that a carelessness in the treatment of others which would be intolerable and impossible elsewhere is permissible and defensible in the circle of the family.

If a man owes consideration to any lady, he owes it first of all and most of all to his own wife. If a woman exhibits her good breeding in her treatment of a stranger or of her friends and acquaintances, she should the more display it in her relations with her husband and children. If gentle regard for the feelings and the little rights of others is requisite anywhere, it is most of all obligatory in the home. The slippered ease of our own household does not relieve us from the restraints upon selfish manifestations which outside society imposes. Because we are free to do as we please in the home, it affords the best test of the reality of our good breeding, whether it is deep-seated and radical or superficial only.

The savor of family life is love, affection, and devotion. Elsewhere those find little stimulus, unless they have been cultivated in the family. Nor can love be replaced by mere hard and logical duty. It must grow in the heart; and the education of the heart is the function of the family. It, as education, cannot be neglected by parents without injustice to their children, and the best way of accomplishing it is to both expand and attract affection. The first manifestation

of parental love and responsive filial regard should never be prevented by any false shams or timidity. Outside of the home some armor of reserve for the protection of the heart may be necessary. Within the family it should be cast aside altogether. Human beings are cheated out of the chief delight of life and are stunted in their growth if they have missed the education of the love of the household; if they have never dared to give themselves away, as the slang phrase is, on the security and confidence of its affection.

The family, then, is the fountain of the influences which tend to make us better to live with. Therein we get our best and most lasting lesson how to live with each other. Therein is generated the social beauty which expands and blossoms in the wider sphere of society, and in it is acquired the deportment

which the world calls good breeding. If rudeness, jealousy, suspicion, self-seeking, deceit, and envy were driven from every household, we should not find them anywhere. Not charity alone, but politeness also must begin at home, charity, tolerance, and whatever tends to the beauty and harmony of life.

If in these narrower relations of the family, of marriage, and of fraternity, people scrupulously and sensitively regard each other, they will acquire a habit which will enable them to live with all other people, however they may encounter them and wherever. Exactly what are the lessons to be learned and their application in the various circumstances and under the many conditions into which people are brought in social intercourse is a subject which demands treatment by itself and more specifically.

EDITOR'S NOTE-BOOK.

THE opening of the Fifty-second Congress was attended with circumstances which will make its work a subject of doubtful conjecture beforehand. One party numbering three to one of the other settles the much debated quorum question inside one party. A large percentage of the new members having been elected by a reaction of farmers because of a long pressure felt by that class, were expected to legislate the pressure away. Nature having intervened with a bounty of crops such as never before harvested, and having provided an unprecedented market for them, prospected farm mortgage and government loan legislation loses its mainspring. This term preceding a national election, will be, as is usual at such times, uneventful. Legislation passed by the Lower House, will have little chance in the Senate, whose majority is of the opposite party, and should any measure of the House pass the Senate through a coalition of Independent Republicans with Democrats, as might be possible regarding local legislation, the president's veto will probably prevent the measure becoming a law. With nature so generously provident the country is not unfortunate if legislation be at a standstill.

THE abuses to which those constitutional clauses conferring senatorial elections and the choice of the method of appointing presi-

dential electors upon state legislatures, have been subjected, have occasioned a passage in the President's Message recommending a crusade against the "gerrymander." Reference is made to the recent act of Michigan removing the presidential vote from the people and vesting the choice of the state in electors by districts, making it possible for a minority to carry the state. Before this act, a uniform system had been practiced by all states for thirty years, and by all but one for sixty. It cannot be doubted that this is the will of the people. Yet Michigan has broken no law; she simply illustrates the hold of the gerrymander on legislative bodies. President Harrison cites a certain state in which one county contains three districts populated in the ratio of 65, 15, and 10 from re-districting. Senator Turpie ascribes the root of the evil to the fact that senatorial elections are vested in state legislatures, having offered a constitutional amendment providing for senatorial elections directly by the people. Whether or not this be desirable, certain it is that a uniform method of federal elections should be adopted by amendment or common law.

LEGISLATIVE action on Senator Hale's bill to establish a permanent Census Bureau, will be watched with interest. Census officials

acknowledge the inability of any hastily equipped Census to compass in a short time the immense variety of inquiries in social, economic, religious, educational, scientific, and many other lines required, aside from the main features of population, wealth, occupation, races, etc. The most valuable result of the Census is the connecting of fact with its cause to determine the effects of legislation, and the study of the operations of social facts, such as the changes wrought from year to year by immigration. Any array of facts gathered ten years apart loses much of its value from this cause. Another drawback to periodic Censuses is the lack of a predecessor from which to take up a work developed to the demand of the times. The Census of a decade before by no means attains the scope required by the progress of this country; consequently many new features are lost sight of. A very grave disability also results from lack of training in the divisions, causing blunders and extravagance.

THE continual smuggling of Chinamen into this country proves the necessity for further legislation which shall more definitely regulate the admission of these foreigners into the United States. The present exclusion law provides that Chinamen found unlawfully in this country shall be sent back to the country from which they came. The department of justice construes this to mean that they must be returned to China. The courts have decided however that Chinamen coming from Canada should be sent back to the Dominion. This will not be a matter of serious concern to the American people. Not more than a few hundred of Chinamen come to this country in a year and the few who manage to evade the law and get across the border toil unceasingly for the means with which to make speedy return to their native land.

THE recent report of Labor Commissioner Peck of New York contains valuable reading. A careful investigation was made into 6,258 strikes in 170 trades during the last official year. Of these 465 were abandoned while 5,566 were amicably adjusted through the mediation of labor organizations. The total number of persons engaged in strikes was 94,974. Wages were increased in 1,941 cases and decreased in 440; while in 2,085 instances a reduction in the hours of labor was secured. The amount estimated to have been lost in wages was \$1,389,164,

and the amount expended for the relief of strikers \$131,518.65. The estimated gain in wages for one year is \$3,122,883.10. The loss to employers it is thought will reach \$481,524.43. The conclusion presented in these statistics is important. The strikes cost the workingmen in lost wages and for relief \$1,510,682.97 and they gained in wages for one year \$3,122,883.10, or more than twice as much as they lost. The employers lost \$481,524.43 besides having to pay the increased wages.

REPORTS from the Alaskan Seal Islands made by Treasury agents go to indicate that at the present rate of seal extermination, the Bering Sea question will in a short time reach a settlement not anticipated by arbitrators. Remains of ten thousand young seals have been recently found in the island rookeries, and evidences that full thirty thousand died during the summer from starvation resulting from the wholesale slaughter of females. Sealing companies attribute the responsibility to poachers whose vessels during the last year were said to number one hundred and twenty, about one fifth American. The continuance of these encroachments means not only the speedy killing of the seal industry, but the pauperism of native Seal Islanders, whose only resource is sealing. According to the agreement between the two governments American sealing companies were to be restricted to seven thousand five hundred seals for the eleven months prior to next May 15. Almost twice that number have been shipped, explained by the companies as including a large number previously killed by natives. Government ships seem however unable to cope with the poachers.

It is not often that a country is blessed with so large a grain crop that the means of transportation at hand prove to be inadequate, yet such has been the case in the United States during the last few months. The immense harvests of the West and the abundant production of grain in Ohio and Indiana during the past season, added to the large shipments of coal from the mines have produced a shortage of freight cars and transportation facilities that has been altogether exceptional. All danger that the West will suffer on account of the insufficient supply of coal, owing to the utilization of transportation facilities in moving the grain product, now seems to be past. Railway officials appear to have studied the

situation carefully and the effect of their combined action in the emergency has been to stimulate business in many channels.

It is a question whether, among the novel features of our social structure, the most anomalous be not the growth of the flower of chivalry toward women among the laboring classes. In support of this, witness the late annual meeting of the Federation of Labor at Birmingham, in which an emphatic resolution was passed in favor of equal wages for men and women for equal work, and in which Congress was also memorialized by two hundred and seventy thousand organized workmen, in a petition for an amendment to the Constitution to be submitted to the states, bestowing the right of suffrage upon women; also, the action of the Toledo Convention of Knights of Labor at which speeches were made in favor of woman suffrage, some urging that it is a solemn duty of woman to bear an equal interest and responsibility with man in government.

In view of the attempts being made to propagate extensively the beet industry in this country, some estimates furnished by the California *Fruit Grower* are interesting. Last year about 4,000,000,000 pounds of sugar were consumed, of which this country produced but little over one fourth. Of the domestic product 8,000,000 pounds were from beets. The question now is why can we not equip beet plants and furnish our own sugar supply. The figures state that to do this 1,000,000 acres of land and 300 factories of large capacity would be required. The cost of establishing and running such industries would be returned to the pockets of our people. The estimate gives a yield of 15 tons per acre, upon which is computed a net profit of \$29 an acre, a decided increase over that of cereal production. The value of beet culture over that of cereals for 3,000 acres of land is computed at \$375,000. If beets were raised to supply the amount of sugar now imported the value realized from the sugar would be \$117,000,000 more than that of cereals produced in an equal area.

NOWHERE in the world are such long strides being taken toward the perfection of social and industrial systems as in the West of the United States. The most important measures affecting the condition of labor passed within the last year have regulated the length of the working hours. In Wyoming

the eight-hour working day is for the coal miner alone, while in Idaho and Kansas it applies also to laborers on state and municipal works, as is the case in New York. The most emphatic piece of legislation relating to this question is that enacted by Nebraska making eight hours the limit of a day's work for all mechanics, servants, and laborers, except those engaged in farm and domestic labor. Railway employees are permitted by law but twenty hours of consecutive service in Minnesota and eighteen in Colorado. The shortening of the working day is usually accompanied by a reduction in wages but those who are affected by the change seem to prefer the new plan.

Nor the least important of the World's Fair attractions will be the Labor Congress which is to be held in Chicago in 1893 under the auspices of the World's Congress Auxiliary of the Columbian Exposition. It will be an immense assemblage of the working people. An effort will be made to have every trade and every labor organization in the United States properly represented and in addition it is expected that the workmen of European countries will send many delegates. John Burns and Thomas Mann, who managed the great London dock strike in 1889, have signified their intention to be present, and Wm. E. Gladstone and Cardinal Manning, having accepted honorary membership, will discuss in writing some important questions. The intelligent discussion of problems relating to the condition and conduct of labor will occupy the attention of the congress, which will be made up of men who believe in honest government and good citizenship.

HAD Anthony J. Drexel bequeathed \$1,500,000 for the purpose of establishing an institute for the practical education of the industrial classes, after his death, it would have been a princely gift. By appropriating that amount to the same purpose during life, he did what was far better, in avoiding the doubtful interpretation to which a legal filter always subjects a will however well meant, and in carrying out his own designs in the full spirit of their originator, instead of leaving them to the more or less perfunctory execution of trustees. Such disposition of wealth on the part of rich men, in endowing with intelligence and skill those destined to earn a livelihood by handicraft, sounds the keynote of reconciliation between the almost

estranged moneyed and laboring classes, and is an object lesson of the kind of charity most beneficial and least capable of abuse. Philadelphia is fortunate in possessing such a monument to such a man.

THE recent death of Senator Plumb furnished an example of the terrible inexorableness of nature. In his very prime, endowed with tremendous vitality, extraordinary physique, and, apparently, an enviable hold on life, suddenly he cries out and dies. Thousands received letters from him during the last month of his life, as he allowed no detail of his vast correspondence to escape his attention. The fatality seeming unforeshadowed, came not without warning. Senator Plumb returned exhausted from a campaign to resume official labors which during his two and a half terms of service had grown Titanic. Suffering violently at times he ignored remonstrance and forged ahead until the vital cord snapped. Counted a very successful man, Senator Plumb belonged to the "self-made" ones. Early moving to Kansas from Ohio where he had been printer and publisher of a paper, he studied law and became prominent as a "Free State" man, being a member of the constitutional convention, then a legislator until the war, through which he served. From the legislature he was sent to the Senate in '77. At his death Senator Plumb was chairman of the committee on public lands, serving on several important committees. His greatest strength lay in unrelenting industry and mastery of details. With all the "go" of a typical Westerner, devotion to official duties, ready speech, and rare ability to handle legislation, he will be missed by Senate and people.

THE appointment of Lord Dufferin as English ambassador to France in place of Lord Lytton lately deceased, is one by which English diplomatic interests will probably receive better treatment than under the genial *littérateur*. Though brilliant, amiable, and engaging, Lord Lytton both as viceroy of India and as ambassador to France had not fulfilled the demands of the positions nor the expectations held of him. His failure has been attributed to a capricious disposition and Bohemianism displeasing to the French sense of official propriety. Lord Dufferin, on the contrary, while not possessing his predecessor's literary and social talents, is a diplo-

mat of wide experience and accomplishments, having served as governor-general of Canada, ambassador to St. Petersburg and Constantinople, viceroy of India, and, at the time of his appointment, representing England in Italy.

A YEAR is too short a time in which to judge of the results of so vast a work as General Booth's Scheme. But that a new ray of light as a result of it has fallen on "darkest England" cannot be denied; and this ray bids fair to brighten into the dawn of a new day. A full report of the year's work has been published from which the following statistics have been clipped: \$125,000 have been spent on the over-sea colony; \$200,000 on the farm colony; and \$200,000 for city refuges and workshops. The total amount expended was over \$500,000. That which speaks best for the undertaking is the fact that there have been 15,000 applications for work at the labor bureau, and that out of more than 2,381,000 cheap meals provided only 25,000 were given free. Nearly 450,000 visits were made to the families of the slums, and over 10,000 visits to the sick. Several departments of the work have proved self-supporting, some even profitable.

BUSINESS interests have been drawing a large part of the congregation of the Madison Avenue Presbyterian Church of New York to settle in other and distant parts of the city. The reduced church faced a serious problem. The temptation was strong to pull up its bulwarks and follow its members. But this was contrary to the directions given long ago by the Master as to how His "house should be filled," and the church put aside the temptation. Plainly informed as to *where* they should seek new "guests," they are preparing messengers to go out into the broad avenues (the highways) and into the narrow river streets and alleys (the hedges) to bid them come in. The part of the problem for them to solve is, *how* to "compel" those invited, to come. In this endeavor they are making new departures and adopting progressive methods of church work. Class distinctions are to be ignored; rich and poor are admitted on the same footing; leagues for men and boys, guilds for women and girls, schools for children, are to form common bonds of interest. The design is to attract all, to influence all, to make of all co-workers; and thus to establish a genuine people's church.

C. I. S. C. OUTLINE AND PROGRAMS.

FOR FEBRUARY.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

First week (ending February 6).

"The Leading Facts of American History."—
Paragraphs 345-357.

"The Story of the Constitution."—From page
60 to page 78.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The Battle of Monmouth."

"Physical Culture."

Sunday Reading for February 7.

Second week (ending February 13).

"The Leading Facts of American History."—
Paragraphs 358-372.

"The Story of the Constitution."—To page 101.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"Domestic and Social Life of the Colonists."

"National Agencies for Scientific Research."

Sunday Reading for February 14.

Third week (ending February 20).

"The Leading Facts of American History."—
Paragraphs 373-393.

"The Story of the Constitution."—To page 120.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"Trading Companies."

"The Bureau of Animal Industry."

Sunday Reading for February 21.

Fourth week (ending February 27).

"The Leading Facts of American History."—
The Declaration of Independence.

"The Story of the Constitution."—To page 147.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"States Made from Territories."

Sunday Reading for February 28.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLE WORK.

FIRST WEEK.

1. Table Talk—Congressional doings.
2. Paper—The work of the Sanitary Commission during the Civil War.
3. Reading—"A Colonial Legend."*
4. Character Sketch—Admiral Farragut.
5. Paper—"The history of gymnastics." (The games of the Greeks and Romans; pastimes of the Middle Ages, tournaments, archery, etc.; different systems of modern times.)

SECOND WEEK.

1. Questions for examination, covering the

*See Library Table, page 632.

week's lesson in American history, found on page XLII. of the text book.

2. Paper—Story of the laying of the Atlantic Cable.
3. Reading—"The Fancy Shot."*
4. Geographical Study—Alaska. (A general exercise, with maps, giving size, general description of country, its history, its purchase, its people and their present condition, schools, etc.)
5. Debate—Question: Was Congress justified in shutting the Chinese from the United States?

THIRD WEEK.

1. Table Talk—The news of the day.
2. Paper—The trouble at the mouth of the Mississippi River, and Captain Eads' attempts to remedy it.
3. Reading—"Are Americans Debtors?"*
4. Essay—The history of the Knights of Labor.
5. A Congressional Discussion—Let the Circle be divided into two parts, which shall present the leading ideas of the opposing parties in the Constitutional Convention on the three questions concerning which they had to compromise—representation, slavery, and the control of commerce. (See "The Story of the Constitution," page 122.) The three questions are to be taken up, one after another, and fully discussed, the contestants carefully going over the whole subject as canvassed in the Convention. The terms of compromise must be clearly brought out. (This exercise will anticipate a part of the lesson marked for the fourth week in *The Outline*.)

LOWELL DAY.—FEBRUARY 22.

"No power can die that ever wrought for truth."

1. Table Talk—Lowell's life.
2. A Portrait Gallery—In the form of a paper let one notice different poems written by Lowell about celebrated persons, and by clear condensation and frequent quotation give the characteristic features of each pen portrait. See "Columbus," "An Interview with Miles Standish," "Wendell Phillips," "William Lloyd Garrison," "Kossuth," "On Board the '76," and many other poems.
3. Paper—The "Address on Democracy" and the "Harvard Commemoration Ode."

*See Library Table, page 632.

4. Reading—"Selection from Mr. Wilbur's Table Talk,"* and "James Russell Lowell."†
5. Lowell's stories retold:
 1. "A Fable for Critics."
 2. "The Biglow Papers."
 3. "The Vision of Sir Launfal."

If it is thought too hard a task to give in outline orally these narrative poems (and others, if wished), it can be done in writing, a separate person taking each one. The oral method though would be much better. Simply give the plan and outline of the story; marking by number selections to be read will help keep in mind of each the thread of the exercise as planned previously by himself.
6. Paper—The friendship between Lowell and Longfellow. It would be interesting to read Longfellow's poem to Lowell, "The Herons at Elmwood" (Elmwood was the name of Lowell's home), and Lowell's poem to Longfellow, "To H. W. L."
7. Tributes paid to Lowell. (Each member of the circle is to find as many of these as possible.)
8. General Discussion—Lowell's place in literature.

As Longfellow Memorial Day comes so near to that of Lowell it seemed fitting to study about the two men together, which accounts for giving Longfellow so large a share of the Lowell Day. If, however, it is desired to hold a separate Longfellow Memorial, suggestions for programs for the day will be found in former volumes of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

* See *Library Table*, page 632.

† See poem on page 533 of the current magazine.

C. L. S. C. NOTES AND WORD STUDIES.

ON REQUIRED READINGS FOR FEBRUARY.

THE LEADING FACTS OF AMERICAN HISTORY.

P. 331. "Alaska." The Russians called the country *Aliaska*, which is a corruption of their word *Al-ay-es-ka*, great country, by which name the native islanders called the mainland.

P. 338. "Mr. Alvan Clark." This great instrument-maker died in Cambridge, Mass., in August, 1887. He was celebrated also as a portrait painter. In connection with his two sons, Alvan G. and George B., he established the firm which has become famous as the greatest telescope makers in the world.

P. 339. "The Modocs." In 1864 the United States made a treaty with these Indians, in which it was agreed that the Indians should yield up their lands and go on a reservation. The treaty was not ratified until 1870 and the reservation was only set apart in 1871. The Modocs meantime had been persuaded to go on the reservation of the Klamaths, where they were constantly harassed by the latter tribe. They then began to grow troublesome and two bands under their warrior Captain Jack forced their way back to their lands on Lost River. When their reservation was ready for them they refused to go upon it. After they were conquered, Captain Jack and two other leaders were tried by a military commission and executed at Fort Klamath, October 3, 1873.

P. 357. "Montana." The name is a Spanish one meaning mountain. It was suggested to the

Hon. James M. Ashley, who proposed it as the name of the territory in 1864, because the territory embraced so large a part of the Rocky Mountains.

"Dakota." This name came from a tribe of Indians, and means allied, from the great confederacy of the northwestern tribes inhabiting it. "The name as adopted was a counterpart of the motto of the United States, *E pluribus unum*—many in one."

P. 358. "Idaho." "From the [Nez Percé] Indian word, *Edah-hoe*, descriptive of the sheen on the mountains, occasioned by the light on the snowy summits, expressed in English 'gem of the mountains,' or literally, the first appearance of the sun shining on the mountain tops."

"Wyoming." This tract of country was so called by emigrants from Wyoming Valley in the eastern part of Pennsylvania. It was derived originally from an Indian expression meaning great plain.

"THE STORY OF THE CONSTITUTION."

P. 63. "Arbitration." The hearing and the deciding of a cause in controversy between two parties by persons agreed to by the parties. The word comes from a similar Latin word for judgment.

"Compromise." The Latin word *compromittere* means to promise mutually to abide by the decision of an arbiter. From this comes the

word compromise, which means a settlement of difficulties by mutual concessions.

P. 64. "Dark Horses." A term much used in American politics, applied to those who are unexpectedly brought forward as candidates in a convention. The term had its origin in horse-racing, where it is used to designate those horses about which nothing is known generally. "The first favorite was never heard of, the second favorite was never seen after the distance post, all the ten-to-ones were in the race, and a dark horse which had never been thought of rushed past the grand stand in sweeping triumph." *Disraeli*.

P. 65. "Democratic revolution in 1825." It was at this time that an effort was made to revive the caucus system of nomination. Meetings held for the purpose of nominating candidates for offices were called caucuses. It was not until between 1820 and 1830 that an attempt was made to apply this method to state or presidential nominations. "State nominating conventions arose about 1825. The first national convention to select presidential candidates was held by the Antimasonic party in Baltimore in September, 1831; and all presidential nominations have since been made by such conventions." Before 1824 presidential electors had been generally chosen by state legislatures. After this date they were generally chosen by popular vote.

P. 66. "Machinery." This term as used in politics designates the system of means and appliances designed to carry out the specified policy of party government. A political machine is defined as "a strict organization of the working members of a party, which enables its managers, through the distribution of offices, careful local supervision, and systematic correspondence, to maintain control of conventions and elections and to secure a predominating influence in the party for themselves and their associates for their own ends; also the body of managers of such an organization."

"Bossism." The control of politics by bosses. In United States politics a boss is "an influential politician who uses the machinery of a party for private ends, or for the advantage of a ring or clique." The word comes down from the Dutch settlers of New York, *baas* being their word for foreman or master, and used by them both literally and figuratively as boss is to-day.

P. 67. "Diplomatic service." Service concerned with the management of international affairs; diplomacy being "the practice of negotiation or official intercourse between independent powers." All officers who represent a government or a monarch at a foreign court are engaged in diplomatic service. The word diplo-

matic is built up from diploma, which was transferred to our language through the Latin from the Greek, where it meant simply a paper folded double, and then a letter of privilege granted by an authority. All representatives need to be supplied with letters authorizing them to act in their official capacity, hence the word.

P. 71. "Compend." A brief composition which contains only the leading heads or principles of a larger work.—"*Résumé*." A French word meaning a summing up or brief recapitulation.

P. 82. "Letters of mark and reprisal." Commissions in time of war given to private persons in command of vessels to cruise at sea and capture the enemy's ships and merchandise. The word mark (spelled commonly *marque*) was used among the Germans to denote the right of taking property as a prize, which lay beyond the frontiers (the word mark meaning frontier) of another province. Reprisal denotes that which is taken from an enemy by way of retaliation.

P. 85. "Anomalous." The Greek word for same was *omos*, best represented in English as *homos*. From this was built up the word *omalos*, even, which the privative prefix *a* or *an* made to mean uneven. Transplanted into English, it is used as descriptive of things which deviate from a common rule or method. It is synonymous with abnormal, irregular. The same root is found in homogeneous; the latter part of the original foreign compound being derived from the word for race or kin, thus the meaning, of the same kind.

"Impalpable." Not readily perceptible or comprehended. The obsolete English verb to palp meant to have a distinct touch or feeling; to feel. The adjective palpable means perceptible by the touch, and then plain, obvious. The Latin verb *palpare* means to feel, to touch.

P. 87. "Revenue." Latin, *re*, again, back, and *venire*, to come. Literally that which comes back from an investment, the returns made by any kind of property. The word is commonly applied now to the annual income of a state derived from taxation customs, etc.

"*Régime*" [*râ-zhem*]. A French word for the character of government, administration, the mode of rule or management.

P. 88. "Funded debt." "That part of the indebtedness of a government or corporation which is payable immediately or soon, so that early provision for payment must be made or forbearance obtained, is called the *floating debt*. To *fund* such an indebtedness is to cancel it by inducing the creditor to take in its place obligations having considerable time to run, and issued in convenient portions or shares

in the form of interest-bearing bonds or certificates available to the holder as marketable securities; or by procuring a fresh loan on the issue of such obligations, and using the proceeds to pay off the floating debt. . . . The funded debt of a body politic or corporate is the aggregate of the debt thus provided for. . . . The funded debts of governments are spoken of as the *public funds* and the securities issued are spoken of as stocks or bonds."—*The Century Dictionary*.

P. 89. "Specie." The word species is directly from the Latin and means an appearance, something to be looked at, then it came to mean a kind, or sort. In some remarkable way it was applied to coin, the ablative case of the word being chosen for the name *specie*, which translated into English means in appearance, in sight; as if paid *in specie* meant paid in *visible* coin.

P. 96. "Tariff." "The origin of the word tariff, I am sure many free traders will be glad to know. Moorish pirates used to sally forth from Tarifa to plunder the vessels passing through the Straits of Gibraltar. After a time they contented themselves (and they found it paid) with levying a heavy tax on the navigators that fell into their clutches. This sort of a tax was called, from where it was collected, tariff."—*Garlanda*.

P. 96. "Trade." The origin and history of this common word is one of interest. It is purely English and closely related to tread. It once meant, literally, a path, and so Surrey used it in his translation of Virgil's *Æneid*,

A postern with a bilind wicket there was,
A common *trade* to passe through Priam's house.

Then, in a figurative sense, it came to be applied to "the ever recurring habit and manner of life," that path which one regularly treads in business.

P. 97. "Impost." Latin *im*, upon, and *ponere*, to place. From the same source are derived the words imposition, imposture, impostor. "The four words, taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, are not used to mean four different things, but only to cover all the usual methods of taxation. These words have not fixed meanings. Some of them have different meanings in different connections. At times some have the same meaning as others. Their most usual meanings when used in connection with one another are perhaps these: *taxes*, direct taxes laid on individuals either as poll taxes or taxes in proportion to property; *duties*, indirect taxes of all kinds, including taxes on exports and imports; *imposts*, duties on imports; *excises*, duties on goods manufactured and used here.

Another word, *customs*, usually means duties on imports and exports, but, in this country, since there are no export duties, it usually means the same as imposts."—*Young's "Government Class Book."*

P. 100. "The Newburg letter." Washington's reply to the "Newburg addresses," for which see note on page 17 in the October number of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*.

P. 106. "The Achæan League." "A confederacy of the twelve towns of Achæa. It was dissolved by Alexander the Great, but reorganized B. C. 280, and again dissolved B. C. 147. The second of these leagues contained all the chief cities of Peloponnesus. It contended with the Macedonians and the Romans for the liberty of Greece." It was soon after the capture of Corinth by the Romans under Mummius, that the league was finally dissolved.

"Amalfi." A city of Italy. The first mention of it in history is made in the sixth century. It was an independent republic governed by doges, with a large surrounding territory depending upon it. Its inhabitants originated a code of maritime laws which were observed by the whole of Italy.

"Modena." A large town in the northern part of Italy. "In 1288 the Marquis d'Este became ruler of Modena. From this time, with a few brief intervals the house of Este in one or other of its branches, governed Modena and its dependencies until 1859."

P. 122. "New York." It seems strange now to see New York ranked with the small states. Ellis H. Roberts in his history of New York in one of the books in the series of "American Commonwealths," says of it in 1791, "New York was at this time fifth of the states in population. Virginia had more than double its number of inhabitants; Pennsylvania had nearly one fourth more; North Carolina exceeded it by the total census of New York City and Long Island; Massachusetts surpassed it in nearly equal degree. When the War [Revolution] closed, Maryland was its peer in population. New York grew in population in seven years preceding 1790 by nearly one half, mounting up to 340,120, and in 1810 with 959,049 attained the second rank, very nearly equaling Virginia, and surpassed it by one third in 1820."

P. 135. "Copyrights." Rights conferred by law upon authors or their representatives to the exclusive sale or use of their intellectual productions. "The first copyright law in the United States was passed in 1790. The term for books then published was fourteen years, and for unpublished books the same period with provision for a renewal for fourteen years."

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS. ON THE C. L. S. C. TEXT-BOOKS.*

THE STORY OF THE CONSTITUTION.

1. Q. Was there any separate or independent state revolt from British authority? A. No, the colonies acted in concert.
2. Q. Was there any precedence as to leadership among the colonies during the Revolution? A. No, the people acted as a unit.
3. Q. What institution is peculiar to American political history? A. The convention.
4. Q. What is its use? A. To ascertain the last formally expressed will of the people.
5. Q. How does it differ from the legislature? A. It is representation applied to politics; the latter is representation applied to civil affairs.
6. Q. Upon what authority did the second Continental Congress assume control of affairs? A. The popular will expressed in the convention.
7. Q. Upon what did the validity of the acts of this Congress rest? A. The events of the war.
8. Q. What is the condition of nationality? A. Armed protection.
9. Q. What is arbitration? A. Compromise.
10. Q. When alone are the methods of arbitration available between nations? A. When the nations are of equal power.
11. Q. Of what was the period of the American Revolution the age? A. Of the foundation of governments.
12. Q. What is the chief problem of the present age? A. The administration of government.
13. Q. Of whom was the Second Continental Congress composed? A. Of a national body of delegates from the people.
14. Q. How were these delegates chosen? A. By the indirect vote of the electors.
15. Q. What followed this indirect method of obtaining the will of the people? A. The control of public affairs fell into the hands of a few men.
16. Q. Can this result be avoided under any other system of electing officials? A. Not in a representative government.
17. Q. Who in the second Congress was the highest type of colonial America? A. Franklin.
18. Q. How did the people act with reference to this Congress? A. They fell away from it as times darkened into defeat, and left it without any support.
19. Q. What two committees were appointed in June, 1776? A. One to frame the Declaration of Independence, and one to draw up a plan for a general government.
20. Q. How were the two reports of the committees received? A. The Declaration of Independence was adopted immediately; the Articles of Confederation after a delay of nearly five years.
21. Q. What is said of the form of government devised in the Articles of Confederation? A. It found none to admire it when proposed, made no friends during its existence, and had no representatives at its death.
22. Q. What suggested these Articles? A. Greek models.
23. Q. What truth was emphasized by the Articles? A. That it is not safe to experiment with principles of government.
24. Q. Why did the Confederation fall to pieces? A. Because it had no taxing power.
25. Q. In what most marked way did the state legislatures show their disregard for congressional government? A. By not furnishing the supplies for the war, voted by Congress.
26. Q. What body sent a circular letter to all the states bespeaking co-operation in granting Congress fuller power? A. The Hartford Convention.
27. Q. At what was the expense of the impending war estimated in 1775? A. Two million dollars.
28. Q. How much did the war cost? A. One hundred and forty millions.
29. Q. How does this sum compare with the present bonded debt of the United States? A. It would pay but little more than its annual interest.
30. Q. How did Congress during the Revolution attempt to get money? A. By making issues of paper money which were almost worthless.
31. Q. To what did this style of government lead the nation? A. To bankruptcy.
32. Q. Who now began a movement which ended in giving the Constitution to the country? A. James Madison.
33. Q. What was this movement? A. The suggesting of a joint commission of Virginia

* The questions and answers on "The Leading Facts of American History" are omitted because of the exhaustive and pertinent list of Questions for Examination published in the back of the book.

and Maryland for the purpose of settling disputes regarding the commerce of the Potomac River.

34. Q. What further idea did Washington suggest to the assembled commissioners? A. The extension of their agreement to all the states of the Union.

35. Q. What was the immediate outcome of these suggestions? A. The calling of a Trade convention to meet at Annapolis in 1786.

36. Q. What famous report was drawn up at this otherwise useless Convention? A. One urging a new convention, composed of delegates from each state, and possessing greater powers, to be held the following year in Philadelphia.

37. Q. At the time this last convention met where was Congress convened? A. In New York.

38. Q. What ordinance passed during this session gave it immortal fame? A. One fixing the northern boundary of slavery.

39. Q. What were the chief causes for the decay of the Confederation? A. Its inability to levy taxes, to raise a revenue, to regulate commerce.

40. Q. What did the Annapolis Convention make clear? A. That a supreme law must exercise power before a national government can be formed.

41. Q. What is said of the men chosen as delegates to the Constitutional Convention? A. That their fame is one of the glories of American history.

42. Q. How many of them were there? A. Fifty-five.

43. Q. Who was called to the chair? A. Washington.

44. Q. What was the character of the Convention? A. It was a secret one, its proceed-

ings not being made known for fifty years.

45. Q. What three compromises had to be made? A. One on representation, one on slavery, and one on the control of commerce.

46. Q. What was the compromise regarding representation? A. That one branch of the legislature should represent the states, which should all have an equal vote in it, and the other branch should represent the people and be apportioned according to population.

47. Q. How was the slavery question settled? A. That three fifths of the slaves should be counted and that taxation should be in the ratio of representation.

48. Q. How was the third compromise made? A. Slaves were to be imported free of taxation and to offset this Congress was given power to pass navigation laws.

49. Q. Where were precedents for nearly all of the administrative provisions of the Constitution found? A. In the various state constitutions.

50. Q. What were the principal new features of the Constitution? A. It was national in character and was made the supreme law of the whole land.

51. Q. How many of the delegates signed their names to the Constitution? A. Thirty-eight.

52. Q. In what order did the states sign? A. In geographical order.

53. Q. Who first signed? A. Washington.

54. Q. Whose speech before the Convention probably carried the resolution for ratification? A. Franklin's.

55. Q. Which one of the thirteen states was not represented in the Convention? A. Rhode Island.

THE QUESTION TABLE.

ANSWERS IN NEXT NUMBER.

AMERICAN FACTS AND FANCIES.

1. Who are the "three friends" mentioned in Whittier's "Tent on the Beach"?

2. Of what writer did Lowell say: "He is very nice reading in summer, but *inter Nos*, we don't want *extra* freezing in winter; Take him up in the depth of July my advice is, When you feel an Egyptian devotion to ices"?

3. In Longfellow's sonnet, "Three Friends of Mine," who were the three friends?

4. Upon what old custom did Whittier found his poem of "Telling the Bees"?

5. Who are the real characters in Longfellow's "Wayside Inn"?

6. To whom did Emerson write his poem, "Ellen at the South"?

7. Who was the Pennsylvania Pilgrim of Whittier's poem?

8. Who was Mary Ashburton in Longfellow's "Hyperion"?

9. In Whittier's "Snow-Bound," who is the character introduced as "another guest that winter night"? Who is the "Crazy Queen of Sheba"?

10. What American woman author has been called "The Tenth Muse"?

PHYSIOLOGY.

1. Of what two substances is bone composed?
2. Are the bones sensitive?
3. Have nerves been found in the interior of the bones of the skeleton?
4. What bones in the human body do not belong to the skeleton?
5. What is known as the hyoid bone?
6. In quadrupeds what is known as the paxywaxy, or paxwax?
7. What is meant by a false joint?
8. Does lack of exercise or sickness affect the bones?
9. When does growth stop in animal life?
10. How many times the period of growth does observation show a normal lifetime in man or animal to be?

BOTANY.

1. What is a fruit proper?
2. What three general kinds of fruits are there? Name some typical examples.
3. What part of the potato plant is the ordinary potato?
4. Do plants ever bear real seeds other than those developed from the showy flowers usually observed?
5. Upon what is based the common practice of pulling off potato blossoms and the flowers of other plants?
6. Is the raspberry really a berry?
7. What natural protections have young fruits to enable them to reach maturity?
8. Name several methods adopted by nature to insure the propagation of plants whose ripened fruits are liable to be plundered for food.
9. What is the mold that often gathers on canned and other fruits?
10. In Shakspeare's "Romeo and Juliet" these lines referring to the mandrake are found,
"Torn out of the earth,
That living mortals, hearing them, run mad."
On what superstition are they founded?

WORLD OF TO-DAY—AUSTRALASIA.

1. What discoverer first took possession of the coast of Australia in the name of the King of England.
2. Why was Botany Bay so called?
3. When was the first English colony settled in Australia? Of what character was the colony?
4. What small animals infest Australia to

such a degree as to affect seriously the agricultural interests of the country?

5. Into how many states is Australia divided?
6. What does the rather indefinite term Australasia include?
7. When was the idea of an Australasian Federation first advanced?
8. What act was passed by the British Parliament regarding these colonies in 1885?
9. To what more efficient scheme did this act lead in 1890?
10. What marked advance step was taken in the Federation Convention of 1891?
11. What recent political reverse threatens to bring to naught all of these recent developments?
12. In favor of what do the views held by the Hon. G. R. Dibbs and his adherents point?
13. Into the hands of what party did the recent election in New South Wales throw the balance of power?
14. What scheme regarding land forms a plank in the platform of this party?
15. What system adopted by the Australians has been followed by about one half of the United States?

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN FOR JANUARY.

AMERICAN FACTS AND FANCIES.

1. The passage of the Stamp Act. 2. "Be assured we shall light torches of another sort." The writer was Charles Thompson, afterwards secretary of the Continental Congress. 3. Edmund Burke. 4. Benjamin Franklin. 5. Mrs. Sigourney. 6. In the trial of Aaron Burr for treason. 7. Commodore Stephen Decatur, U. S. N., at a public dinner given in Norfolk, Va., in 1817 gave this toast: "Our country, right or wrong." 8. La Fayette. 9. William H. Seward. 10. Andrew Jackson.

PHYSIOLOGY.

1. Because they belong also to the vegetable kingdom. 2. No more than it is known what electricity is. 3. About 150 feet a second. 4. The spinal marrow. 5. In cutting through the skin. 6. In the brain. 7. The organs of sense; respiration, voice, and speech. 8. Chiefly to the voluntary muscles. 9. That they often experience sensations as if the missing limbs were present; they complain of pain in the hand or foot that may be gone. 10. The same sensation may be produced by irritating any part of a nerve, the center or end—the trunk of the nerve being touched gives rise to a sensation which seems to come from the extremities.

THE WORLD OF TO DAY.—THE RUSSIAN JEWS.

1. From 5,000,000 to 6,000,000. 2. It is about double the highest estimate made of them in any other country. 3. In the tenth century. 4. Odessa. 5. The one enforcing the "May laws of 1882." 6. From the legal profession, from the profession of engineer, of army doctor, from filling any office under the government; they cannot be farmers or miners; and they cannot attend any of the higher institutions of learning. 7. "To transport them to other countries where they may enjoy the same rights as the people among whom they live." 8. The Jewish Colonization Association having a capital of \$10,000,000. 9. In Cape May, New Jersey. 10. In North and South America.

BOTANY.

1. Because the buds for the fruit and new branches are formed in the summer or autumn for the following year and therefore have been pruned away. 2. To place the sapwood (alburnum) and the new wood (cambium) of the scion against corresponding parts of the stock. 3. No; the hard woods never grow together. 4. The rootlets at one extremity, the buds and leaves of the season at the other, connected by a zone of the newest wood and bark, all of which are renewed every year. 5. Besides their growth in opposite directions, the stem grows by developing

a succession of joints, each new one proceeding from the summit of the previous one and elongating in every part till it attains its full size; whereas the root has no joints and elongates only at the end. 6. The elongation of the joints remove the leaves farther apart, bringing them better into the light; while the parts of roots already formed are left firm and undisturbed in the ground and the new advancing points are enabled to creep through crevices and around solid obstacles. 7. Flowerless plants, including ferns or brakes, mosses, liverworts, mushrooms, etc., the stems of which grow by additions to their apex, and whose highest type is found among the ferns. 8. In this country the stem advances under or along the ground sending up its leaves or fronds which die down yearly; in the tropics the stem rises forty or fifty feet bearing aloft its tuft of leaves. 9. With the exception of the mushroom, which is non-flowering, all cultivated plants belong to the flowering division. 10. Trees require light in order to develop; the high-branched tree sprouting in a more shaded place has sent up its stem to seek the light before expanding its branches. The same thing frequently is seen in the growth of a seed that has been buried unusually deep; it sends up a sprout often several inches long before it spreads any leaves.

THE C. L. S. C. CLASSES.

1882—1895.

CLASS OF 1892.—"THE COLUMBIA."

"Seek and ye shall obtain."

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CLASS FLOWER—CARNATION.

A JAPANESE member of '92, who completed a course of work at Yale in June and is now in a law school, writes: "Before I start for my home in Japan next summer I hope to go to Chautauqua to graduate with my class, and if I do, I shall wave a Japanese flag in the marching."

ANOTHER appreciative member of the same

class says: "The course of reading has been to me an inestimable blessing, broadening and deepening my conceptions of life and its responsibilities. It has given me germs of thought which I should never have had without it and, while I am about my work, what I have read furnishes me with subjects for thought and meditation and keeps my mind from dwelling on the petty cares and crosses of daily life."

AMONG the class membership are teachers in colleges and public schools whose praise is as hearty as that of people more shut off from books. One writes: "I am a primary teacher and the readings are just what I need, as they take me away from thoughts of my schoolroom and keep me from being so narrow." Another testifies: "I am a Latin teacher in Oxford College and I derive much benefit from the Latin in the Chautauqua course." Still another: "I think the Chautauqua course of great benefit to me and am more in love with it all the time."

CLASS OF 1893.—"THE ATHENIANS."

"Study to be what you wish to seem."

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EMBLEM.—THE ACORN.

A WORD FROM THE PRESIDENT.—From different parts of the country reports have been received indicating that the members of the Class of '93 have taken hold of the work assigned for the present year with an increased interest. One good brother, writing from an eastern city, says: "C. L. S. C. work is booming with us." Let it be so wherever the Class of '93 is represented. Let there be no lagging behind. If we keep abreast of the work or, better still, ahead of it, we shall read with more pleasure and profit.

A great many of our members have doubtless received a card from the treasurer of the class, Prof. W. H. Scott, asking for such contribution as they may see fit to give to the Class Building fund. It is very much desired that all who can, will respond favorably to this call. Please consult Professor Scott's notice in the December number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN. Some who have already contributed to this fund may receive these cards; if so, they are not to consider it as a second appeal, yet, if they are able and willing to make a second contribution, it will be thankfully received. These cards are sent out from the office of the C. L. S. C., where no record is possessed of contributions already received. Classmates, let us put forth every effort to raise the amount required of our class for the splendid Class Building it is proposed to erect. It is understood that other classes interested in the project have secured the amount required of them and are ready to begin work. Let us not be left behind.

It may be that some of our members may not receive these contribution cards. If such should unfortunately be the case, do not let it prevent your contributing to the fund. Send any

amount, small or great, to Prof. W. H. Scott, 215 Erie St., Syracuse, N. Y.

We sincerely hope and confidently expect that within a few months the treasurer will be able to report that the full amount required of '93 has been raised. To insure this let every member respond to the call promptly and liberally. A delay of a month or two may be sufficient to rob a member of the honor of helping to provide a class home.

A BUSY one of '93 writes: "I feel that the Chautauqua course so far has been a great benefit to me and will be of more advantage in the future. It is a course of reading that we who are mothers need even more than any other class of readers, as it takes us away from the many cares and vexations of life, lifting our thoughts higher, putting us more in sympathy with our children in their studies, as the reading is in line with their more advanced work in the high schools and colleges. Therefore it makes mothers more companionable to their children, who are perhaps receiving better advantages than they ever received. I consider the Chautauqua course of inestimable value and wish that she who would be benefited by it could be influenced to take it up. It not only adds to our knowledge, but adds so much to our happiness and contentment with life."

"I HAVE a family of seven for whom I do the work with the assistance of a daughter who attends school all the time; I am clerk in the auditor's office of the county, which keeps me employed seven hours of the day, besides my church work and some other outside interests. But my greatest pleasure is the work of the Chautauqua Circle, and it has done me much good, especially in the elevation of my general reading."—'93, South Dakota.

CLASS OF 1894.—"THE PHILOMATHEANS."

"Ubi mel, ibi apes."

OFFICERS.

President—John Habberton, New York City.*Vice-Presidents*—The Rev. A. C. Ellis, Jamestown, N. Y.; the Rev. R. D. Ledyard, Steubenville, Ohio; the Rev. L. A. Banks, Boston, Mass.; the Rev. J. A. Cosby, Benkleman, Neb.; the Rev. Dr. Livingston, Toronto, Canada; Mrs. Helen Campbell, New York City; the Rev. J. W. Lee, D. D., Atlanta, Ga.*Secretary*—Miss Grace D. Fowler, Buffalo, N. Y.*Treasurer*—Mr. Henry M. Hall, Titusville, Pa.*Class Trustee*—W. T. Everson, Union City, Pa.*Building Committee*—William T. Everson, Union City, Pa.; Henry M. Hall, Titusville, Pa.; Mr. C. Foskey, Shamburg, Pa.; Miss Grace D. Fowler, Buffalo, N. Y.

CLASS FLOWER—CLOVER.

THE following extracts have been clipped from

letters signed by '94's in many and widely separated regions:

"I FIND the C. L. S. C. course just the thing for a girl who has been disappointed in a college education. I look forward to the next year's course with great pleasure and interest, for it treats of subjects that I am very much interested in and wish to know more about."

"THOUGH progress must necessarily be slow with one who has had little schooling and a life full of work; and though I wish intellectual faculties were not so slow to grasp ideas or so weak to retain, still I am conscious of seeing with other eyes and hearing with other ears than before. Then, too, the study has been such a source of true pleasure to myself and profit to my family, that I never get tired of even the plodding."

"I WILL say that I intend to continue my Chautauqua reading another year. I am pretty old to commence to study now, but I enjoyed it last year very much and think I shall enjoy this year still more. I am an old lady, sixty-six, and do my own work and have a great many interruptions in my daily readings, but I mean to keep up."

"I AM reading the C. L. S. C. and will continue the full course as I find it very enjoyable indeed. I think it one of the greatest advantages to the people at large, particularly to women. It seems to enlarge our homes; through science we can see beauty and symmetry even in our housework."

"MONTHS of serious sickness brought on by overwork, have left me so very weak that I find myself obliged to reread all of the required work in order to fill out the memoranda in full. I have no thought of giving up the work, and often wonder how I could have lived through the past year without the C. L. S. C. to bring new thoughts to the brain that seemed to be on fire and drive away those of sorrow, trouble, and business perplexities."

"THIS year's work has been so much help to me that I could not think of dropping it after one year. I have always longed for a college education, but as I am a teacher just beginning in a district school and with others to think of and help besides myself, I had nearly given up all hopes until the C. L. S. C. opened the way by giving me the chance to educate myself."

"I WISH to add my testimony to the pleasure and profit I have derived from the readings of the past year. I commenced them with a great sorrow overshadowing my mind and heart but

they have helped me to feel that though life in this world can never be to me again what it has been, there is still much to live for and even to enjoy and as we 'Study the Word and Works of God' I feel that we are brought nearer to Him and to those loved ones whom He has taken to dwell with Him and from whom we are separated for a time."

CLASS OF 1895.—"THE PATHFINDERS."

"The truth shall make you free."

President—Dr. H. B. Adams, Baltimore, Md.

Vice-Presidents—The Rev. Dr. Wilbur Crafts, New York; Miss Grace Dodge, New York; Mrs. Olive A. James, Rimersburg, Pa.; Miss Mary Davenport, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Mr. Frank O. Flynn, Belleville, Ont.; the Rev. William M. Hayes, Oxford, Ga.; the Rev. Hervey Wood, Passaic, N. J.; Mrs. E. H. Durgin, Portland, Ore.; Miss Carrie L. Turrentine, Gadsden, Ala.; Mr. Thomas Nelson Page, Richmond, Va.; Mrs. R. H. I. Goddard, Providence, R. I.; Prof. J. A. Woodburn, Indiana University.

Corresponding Secretary—Jane Mead Welch, Buffalo, N. Y.

Recording Secretary—Miss Mary R. Miller, Akron, O.

Treasurer—Mrs. E. C. Thompson, Litchfield, Ill.

Trustee of the Building Fund—The Rev. Fred. L. Thompson, Litchfield, Ill.

GRADUATE CLASSES.

AN APPEAL TO THE CLASS OF '86.

DEAR CLASSMATES.—For a long time I have felt that something should be said about our Class Building. I need not speak of the need of such a building; it is decided that we must have it; the contract is let, and the class is pledged for \$1,000. Now how are we to raise this sum? We have on hand \$290, besides some pledges, but not nearly enough to pay our share of the expense. Our treasurer of the building fund has guaranteed the remainder, and we must see that he does not suffer for his kindness. Will not every one who reads this letter, send some amount, large or small, to Mr. S. Knight, 939 Ailanthus St., St. Louis, Mo., and also solicit help from any member of the Class of '86 who does not take THE CHAUTAUQUAN. If this is done, we need have no further anxiety about a debt. *Sec. Class of '86.*

THE Irrepressibles of '84 last August finished paying for their class cottage at Chautauqua, valued at \$1,200. The event was celebrated by a "Jubilee" in the Hall of Philosophy, at which class memorabilia by Mrs. A. L. Wescott and a class poem by Mrs. C. E. L. Slocum were furnished, besides addresses by distinguished Chautauquans; the exercises were completed by making the last payment, and burning the mortgage on a silver salver. A bright souvenir of the occasion was published by the class treasurer.

SEVERAL '91's write as follows:

"Chautauqua has not given me a love for

knowledge for I had that already; it has not given me regular habits of study or concentration of thought for I had that before. I have gained precisely what Chautauqua proposes to give—"A Broad Outlook." "

"I have been an invalid more than a year and cannot step without crutches and fear it will be a long time before I can walk again. I have purchased every required book and shall have settled all bills when the enclosed fee is received by you. Have taken in washing and sewing to be able to buy the reading, and now I find the expenses of sickness are great, so I cannot even subscribe for the beloved magazine this year."

"I never found so much enjoyment in anything as in this Chautauqua course. I was married young and have a happy home, yet I never felt just satisfied, too much buried up as it were, sort of rusting out. But I now see more in life than I ever saw before, and I know I am a better woman. My mind dwells not so much on the petty cares of life as formerly, and I am more contented and happier, and only wish all could be brought to experience what I have."

The Guild of the Seven Seals has adopted the following constitution:

1. *Membership.*—The Society of the "Guild of the Seven Seals" is composed of those graduates of the C. L. S. C. who have fourteen or more seals on their diploma.

2. *Object.*—To emphasize the aggressive missionary spirit of the C. L. S. C. which represents the fullest development of soul and body as

expressed in the Chautauqua idea. To stimulate members of the Guild of the Seven Seals to enter special lines of work as indicated in the College of Liberal Arts and in the post-graduate courses of the C. L. S. C.

3. *Officers.*—The officers shall consist of a President, two Vice Presidents, Secretary and Treasurer, and an Executive Committee of three members, all of whom shall be elected by open vote at the annual meeting of the G. S. S.

4. *Meetings.*—The annual meeting of the G. S. S. for the election of officers and the transaction of other business shall immediately follow the League on Recognition Day. Other meetings of the Guild may be called by order of the President, or in the absence of the President, by a Vice President.

A meeting shall be held preceding the annual meeting at which the presiding officer shall appoint the bearers for the Guild banner for Recognition Day, and shall appoint a committee to nominate officers for the coming year.

A Reception of the G. S. S. shall be given the Saturday evening before Recognition Day. The members of the C. L. S. C. faculty and members of the press shall be invited, also those that take part in the program, and any person it may be wise, in the judgment of the faculty and officers of the Guild, to have present.

5. *Committee, etc.*—The officers of the G. S. S. together with the executive committee shall constitute a committee to whom shall be intrusted the duty of arranging and carrying out such work as shall in their judgment further the objects of the Guild. Four of the committee shall constitute a quorum.

LOCAL CIRCLES.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We Study the Word and the Works of God."

"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst."

"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.

BRYANT DAY—November 3.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—November, second Sunday.

MILTON DAY—December 9.

COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.

LOWELL DAY—February 22.

LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.

HAWTHORNE DAY—March 29.

SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.

ADDISON DAY—May 1.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.

INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday; anniversary of C. L. S. C. at Chautauqua.

ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday; anniversary of the dedication of St. Paul's Grove at Chautauqua.

RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday after the first Tuesday.

AS winter settles down over the country Chautauqua's great backlogs freshly rekindled are lighting up, affording a center of warmth and brightness in many communities which would otherwise be cold and silent. In

the midst of this glow many an idea will unfold itself, many a warm and friendly discussion will develop to the enlightenment of circles and societies.

The "Local Circle" mail is the proper chan-

nel through which to convey these fresh thoughts to benefit other centers outside those from which they spring. Letters should contain full accounts of all features of work undertaken by circles which can be of benefit to others. Speaking of local circle news letters, the Recipient will be pardoned for making a suggestion or two.

First, these letters are indexed according to towns, circles, and their secretaries. For that reason it would be of convenience if the writer, if secretary of the circle, would add that title after the signature; otherwise the phrase "not secretary" would be of use in preventing the wrong name being indexed as secretary.

Second, it would confer a favor upon the Recipient if, at the *head of the letter*, the writer would invariably give name of town and state, and immediately under this the name, if any, of the circle. Could the writers be shown the amount of time saved in a batch numbering hundreds of letters, in which the Recipient has only to glance at the top to discover place and circle, this request would certainly be cheerfully remembered and complied with.

Letters have to be mailed two months before they can appear in the magazine.

News in detail of the workings of the circle, its especial features, original devices or plans of operation, are most welcome, adding great general interest to readers in other circles. Every bright, full, and warmly live letter reaching the Recipient spreads a smile of satisfaction and appreciation over the latter's features, which sensation is communicated to circles far and wide as soon as the next issue comes out.

Among the interesting incidents of this year's progress is the re-opening of the Brooklyn Assembly, a most vigorous body, one of whose committees is devoted to the planting of circles in the various sections of the city. At least seven circles have already been started in this way. Reunion occurred in October with inspiring performances. A superior lecture course has been arranged for the winter, thus centralizing under the banner of Chautauqua literary endeavors which become the inspiration of hundreds of local circle members.

GRADUATE CIRCLES.

MASSACHUSETTS.—At Worcester a circle has been organized called the Post Graduates, quite a number having enrolled, others who are not members swelling the regular attendance.

NEW YORK.—The graduates in Syracuse have organized an alumni association with Dr. W. A. Duncan of the Class of '82 as honorary president. The special course in American history I-Feb.

has been undertaken by nearly all the thirty members.—Much enthusiasm is shown by the graduates in Alfred Centre in their third year of work together.—Regular meetings are held by the ten '88's of A. E. Dunning Circle of Brooklyn, who will this year finish their course in English history and literature.—Many '91's have joined the Brooklyn Alumni, who have chosen a list of subjects in harmony with the second year's English history and literature course. Thoughtful programs and social half hours are eliciting interest and fraternal feeling among members.—Twelve '91's of Castile organized to take the Shakspeare seal course, and the number of readers has now swelled to twenty-four.

ILLINOIS.—"Real study" is the purpose of the Harmony Alumni at Onarga, who write that they are organized for the two years' course in American history.—Twelve graduates at Savannah have formed a post-graduate circle for the purpose of taking a seal course; they propose first to review the American year and report that they "cannot speak too highly of the benefit derived from the course read, and feel impelled to keep together as a circle for mutual benefit."—Graduates at Delavan have organized an alumni circle. The subject undertaken is geology.

KENTUCKY.—The special course in English history and literature has been taken up by fifteen students at Richmond who are graduates of classes from '86 to '89 and others who have entered for the special course only.

WISCONSIN.—The Beta of Milwaukee has undertaken the English history and literature seal course beginning this year.

IOWA.—The circle at Manchester whose studies were interrupted by sickness last year has made up its work and entered full upon the second year's English post-graduate course.—The Oskaloosa Circle has begun its fourth year graduate course in history and literature.—The alumni circle at Leon is devoting itself to the third year English course.

KANSAS.—From Topeka comes the report that the seal class now undertaking the third year's work in English history and literature is in a very flourishing condition, and numbers twenty members.

NEBRASKA.—Twenty-five graduates at Lincoln, now pursuing the third year's work in English history and literature, have spread their zeal to the extent of forming a new circle in that town.

NEW CIRCLES.

MAINE.—A small circle at Skowhegan has

decided to enliven the long New England winter by joining the Class of '95, beginning with the American year.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—A baker's dozen forming a circle at Sunapee "expect to do good work."

MASSACHUSETTS.—An enthusiastic set of Chautauquans report a large circle called the Sherwin, and a flourishing condition of the same at Lowell.—A combination of two old circles at Salem with a number of new students has effected a substantial basis for Chautauqua work in that place.—Winthrop reports a score and a half of newly enrolled members anticipating a profitable year.

RHODE ISLAND.—Another circle has been added to the list at Providence called the Harper Circle, working under C. L. S. C. inspiration.

CONNECTICUT.—The young people in Humphrey Street Church, New Haven, have organized under the suggestive title of the Lucky Circle. They already report very lively and interesting meetings participated in by twenty-one members.

NEW YORK.—The Cosmopolitan Circle formed in the Second German Baptist Church of New York City, sounds a strong note. Its members are busy people but wedge in time enough to prepare a good program, a feature of which is the mention by each member in answer to the roll call of what to him is the most salient feature of the evening's history lesson.—Garfield Circle is another newly formed band of readers in connection with the Church of Disciples, New York City.—Chautauqua's interest in Brooklyn is increased by the addition of another to her large roll of circles; this one, the Irving, blazes its way by the pithy motto, "Learn to live, and live to learn."—Two new circles come in from Buffalo, the Niagara, organized at the Woman's Christian Association Rooms, and another at the Buffalo State Hospital.—Lowell Circle at Rochester reports a healthy start with growing tendencies.—The Franklin C. L. S. C. of Rochester numbers twenty-five members, since its organization in October, with the Rev. F. A. Parkhurst as president. The circle meets at the various houses on alternate Monday evenings, the exercises being conducted by three leaders chosen at the previous meetings. Each is allowed thirty minutes in which to present the subject assigned him, and the rest of the evening is devoted to singing Chautauqua songs.—Another circle at Syracuse, the Hillside, shows a popular movement on the Chautauqua line, beginning with the large membership of sixty.—Stockbridge Circle recently formed is receiving accessions to its numbers.—Two or three interested Chautauqua

readers at Ogdensburg recently undertook to interest some of their friends in the work; as a result, a circle of fifteen vigorous members has already rewarded their labors.—Sunnyside Circle of North Tarrytown has joined the Class of '95.—Several congenial families making a cosy circle of seventeen members have enrolled at Marathon for joint study.—At Edmeston a scholarly gentleman recently called an informal meeting of all disposed to enter on a Chautauqua course. The response was such as to establish a thriving circle at that place.—Generous efforts of studious and progressive individuals have been the means of forming new circles at Candor, Hyndsville, Pound Ridge, and Tarrytown.

NEW JERSEY.—A circle whose membership consists of one family reports from Somerville.—Nine members at Camden calling themselves the Cereus have joined the '95's.—Other '95's are found at Eatontown.

PENNSYLVANIA.—The new circle at Scranton is benefited by the attendance of eleven seal readers in addition to their other membership.—A most instructive season is anticipated by the new circle of seventeen members at Ligonier.—Altoona is the home of another new circle called the Adams, all members of '95.—A new circle composed of graduates who have decided to review the course sends a greeting from Beaver.—An energetic class of readers is organized at Falls to pursue the American year. It is known as the Oriens Circle and is firmly grounded.—Duke Center Circle is starting with a membership of ten.—Members of '95 forming classes at Cochranville and Carmichael's send in reports of prosperous beginnings.

MARYLAND.—A few readers at Rohrsville have found it far more beneficial to meet and talk over the readings than to pursue them separately, and have organized to reap the full good of the course.—A fair-sized circle is newly recruited at Denton with good prospects.

VIRGINIA.—The earnestness and fixed purpose to reach solid attainments of the Shawnee Circle at Winchester have convinced its correspondent that if there are any more progressive or promising circles in the state, they are yet to be heard from. The benefit anticipated by its thirty-one members is inspiring them with a missionary spirit to set the Chautauqua light ablaze in other towns.

GEORGIA.—Way Cross has just witnessed the organization of a good-intentioned circle of twenty-six members.—New readers have joined the list at Peagin, whose greeting has a hearty ring in it.

FLORIDA.—Half a score of Chautauquans

have banded for mutual help at Leesburg.

OHIO.—The scribe of a new circle at Cleveland writes that the outlook is most encouraging for splendid progress, but is troubled that so few young men have become members, who, if once attracted, would undoubtedly find permanent interest. Probably the quality of work and interest of present members will in a degree solve the question. Other circles organized at Cleveland are the Oakdale and the Lesser Light, both of which evince satisfaction with their beginnings.—Circles have begun to illumine the hilltops about Cincinnati. One, the Price Hill Circle now numbering sixteen members, which is expected soon to reach twenty-five, the desired goal, is written of as very successful and bright, so far.—A creditable number of '95's are enrolled at Columbus, and enjoying the American studies.—A few readers at Hamilton finding it "more profitable to unite in study than to pursue it alone," have formed a Home Circle.—A tuneful note comes from Mount Sterling where a new circle has decided to sing itself into popularity with Chautauqua songs.—Vigorous efforts on the part of some Chautauqua friends have crystallized in the formation of a good circle at Bridgeport.—Members of the new circle at Wakeman, numbering seven, hold weekly meetings, being able in that way to compass the work more thoroughly.—Other new circles at Alpha, Twinsburg, and Green Spring are to be congratulated on beginning their course of home culture this American year.

MICHIGAN.—C. L. S. C. enthusiasm has taken root in Charlevoix developing into a circle of thirty active members with other local readers. A worthy spirit of earnestness is evidenced in the circle letter.—Delhi Mills Circle gives assurance that it is doing well; it is growing at the same time.

INDIANA.—A good letter comes from the new Trinity Circle at Evansville, composed of '95's and reporting a flattering membership of fifty-nine.—"We are late in organizing but mean to make up the work by greater effort," writes the secretary of a new circle at Fort Wayne, asking for a goodly number of blanks.—The M. E. McKillip Circle at Seymour bases strong hopes for success on possessing an "excellent president, increasing membership, and live interest."—The new Lew Wallace Circle at Crawfordsville announces that "each meeting proves a deeper degree of zeal in the year's study undertaken."

WISCONSIN.—News comes from Viroqua of a new circle of thirteen, fortunate in having some graduate seal readers.—A comely circle or-

ganized at Whitehall sends word of its prosperous outlook.—Ten new members are reported as forming a circle of worth at Seymour.

ILLINOIS.—The Sinclair Circle, so named because including all the members of that family, is determined on a steady course at Ashland.—Congenial spirits to the number of six have organized for study at Arenzville.—The Columbia at Chicago is starting in with assuring prospects of success. The circle has already added considerably to its starting force. The literary branch of the Ada St. M. E. Church Epworth League has decided Chautauqua readings to be the most profitable for the study of the club, and reports a large enrollment for the work.—Interested readers are found at Clyde, where a sprightly young circle has lately developed.—Several friends at Gridley, doing Chautauqua work, have merged their efforts into the establishment of a helpful circle.—The leaven of a few earnest students has spread through Canton resulting in the recent formation of a well-equipped circle there.

KENTUCKY.—"We have to content ourselves with an informal circle in the country," writes the scribe of a diligent group of new workers at Lebanon.—"Our circle is composed of excellent young men and young women, with a talented president also. We are sure of a successful year," comes cheerily from Smith Grove Circle.—Bowling Green has fallen in line with a good working Chautauqua company.

TENNESSEE.—The new Beemis Circle at Nashville, so named from the president of Vanderbilt University, who has been elected president of the circle, already numbers seventeen members "ready and eager for work."

ALABAMA.—Students to the number of twenty at Birmingham have organized into the North Highland Circle, which is vouched for as "doing well so far."

MISSISSIPPI.—A compact body of Chautauquans is actively at work in Canton, numbering sixteen members.—The new Jackson Circle is rejoiced over its prospects of a fine year's work, having begun with nine readers and a promise of good increase.

MINNESOTA.—"Ours is a most attractive circle; we have the best of material to depend upon, all fond of study," sounds the prophecy of sure success to the new circle at Albert Lea.—The Zimada Circle at Minneapolis has become convinced in its first month's work of the great value of Chautauqua study and proposes to scatter the seed of its accomplishments as widely as possible.—Ninety-five's are banded together at North St. Paul under the name of Silver Lake Circle.

IOWA.—The Home Circle idea has taken root in a family in Burlington, all of whose members have joined '95.—An excellent idea has been put into practice by the Lowell Circle of Boone. After the close of the regular meeting the ladies forming the circle remain once a month for tea with the hostess, to be joined by gentlemen in the evening, when some live topic is discussed, the one reported being a talk by a Judge, on "Land Tenure in the United States." With such practical and progressive efforts the most solid attainments can be foretold.—The Accrescent Circle of Griswold is a pleasing addition of nine new members to one formerly connected with Chautauqua.—A promising new circle at Ira sends its greeting with the declaration that interest in the course has taken deep hold on its members.—"We have as large a new class as we can accommodate, and are hearty Chautauqua admirers as well as workers," writes the secretary of a recently formed class at Des Moines.—A number of friends at Marshalltown have decided to help each other in the pursuit of Chautauqua readings.

MISSOURI.—At Clinton a new circle called the Vincent has begun work, numbering, including local readers, about thirty. The greatest interest is shown in the work in which there is much scope for the study of Americanisms of all kinds. Full appreciation of its benefits is shown.—Inspiring is such a letter as that from Oregon of whose circle the secretary writes, "We are going into this thing to win; rusty in the history and literature of our own country, we apply to Chautauqua."—The first Plattsburg circle was organized shortly ago, and promises to send in new names as it progresses.—The last new circles of the state heard from are at Maitland and Bethany, the latter consisting of "sixteen busy-housekeepers."

SOUTH DAKOTA.—The new circle at Woonsocket deserves special mention for its manifest energy. It is called the Fountain City from the growing fame of Woonsocket artesian wells, and has proved a constant spring of vigor and zest to its members, who are reported to be steadily increasing.

NEBRASKA.—The Athenians at Wausa are well organized with a good working enrollment.—Another circle at Lincoln calls itself the East Lincoln Circle, and is reported as a "splendid body of fifteen members."—A membership of twenty-eight does not satisfy the new West Point readers, who ask for a dozen more application blanks to accommodate those anxious to enlist.

KANSAS.—"We have an interesting circle here with thirty-eight enrolled and an average at-

tendance of twenty-five or thirty," and with that promise the new circle at Winfield is on the way to profitable accomplishments.—The large local circle at Highland which feels afraid of examinations would lose nothing by the experiment of giving them a trial. The benefit of central communication would be shown. The circle is noted as an influential one already.

TEXAS.—The new circle at Hearne is fortunate in having the services as president of the lady who organized the first C. L. S. C. in Texas. Under such inspiration and leadership the class very justly feels "bound to progress."—Odessa sends in a new enrollment of six members, a good number to start from.

NEW MEXICO.—Twenty-five fresh readers start out at Socorro, who announce very pleasant meetings full of hearty Chautauqua spirit.

WASHINGTON.—From a number of places in the new state come bright notes of Chautauqua beginnings. The two circles at Dayton number forty-five members, the Columbian being just organized.—The Green Lake Circle, the latest accession to those of Seattle, has a fine membership, composed of some of the legal and educational spirits of the city.—Olympia has a new circle of twenty-five members with "brightest prospects for the year and the right president in the right place."—Another large band of readers are leagued at New Whatcom giving assurance of an unusually good outlook for the year.—Fremont completes the new list with a dozen and a half students.

OREGON.—A businesslike statement comes from Portland, of the organization of Trinity Circle of that place. The membership starts at twenty with firm intention of completing the course.—A request for additional blanks shows that twenty members, the number now enrolled in the new circle at Oswego, are not the measure of the interest in the work felt in that place.—Quite a number of '95's have hailed from Beaverton.

CALIFORNIA.—A small circle "expecting to grow" is of recent formation at Lodi.

OLD CIRCLES.

CANADA.—Maple Leaf Circle of Port Hope resumes with increased attendance this year, and the benefit of a year's experience in study which gives the circle hope and confidence.

MAINE.—The little circle of Bridgton writes of increasing numbers and zeal.—Foxcroft Circle and Sebasticook Circle of Clinton bear the same evidences of prosperity, in the continuation of old members with the addition of new ones.—Biddeford Anabasis Circle holds its own.—In the Sweet Briar Circle at the Reform

School of Portland, are some white and golden seal readers.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—The Raymond Circle of Nashua deserves commendation for a strong endeavor to recover from a loss sustained by the compulsory attendance of many of its members who were teachers, upon another club, the members being too busy to attend both meetings. Every such endeavor is followed by awakened interest if not increase in numbers.

VERMONT.—Hartland Circle promises to make up for lost time, being now thoroughly reorganized.

MASSACHUSETTS.—"Abington Circle is awake and doing good work," is the greeting from that circle, which meets weekly.—Golden Rod Circle of Springfield has buckled on its armor to go forth to win both new members and new honors. The members testify their ability to grasp new ideas and the whole scope of the work, better than a year ago.—Campello gives notice of a good start and the undertaking of seal reading.

RHODE ISLAND.—Hope Circle of Providence remains compactly united and progressive.

CONNECTICUT.—Eight members hold up the standard of the Athena Circle at West Suffield.

NEW YORK.—Grace Circle of Brooklyn has in its membership of forty-two, the elements of a most thriving circle of varied and interesting features. Ten new names have recently been enrolled.—West End Circle of Syracuse takes a prominent stand among those of that city in numbers and weight.—The Orientals of the First Baptist Church, Auburn, are very progressive for their name, adding fresh recruits to their list this year.—A good letter from Andover tells of the success realized by that circle in following the suggestion of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* to divide the circle in halves creating a friendly rivalry. The results shown at the weekly meetings are such as were not even hoped for. Several graduates find the work profitable and aid the circle by their co-operation.—The scribe at Hudson writes that the club has fallen off somewhat in numbers this year, leaving twenty-three members of "excellent caliber, whose work will show no diminution."—Hope Circle of Buffalo writes, "We are as enthusiastic as ever if not more so; old members are enrolled and many others have decided to join us."—A look at the lists of Arkport Eolian Circle, the Ontioras of Catskill, and Castle Creek Circle, shows the widening reach of the Chautauqua plant when once grounded.—Two ministers heading the Johnsonville Union Circle, followed by thirteen earnest workers insure a profitable season this year.—Day Spring Circle at Orwell is quick-

ened by a fresh current added by several '95's.

—Quite a number of graduates from the Accrescents of Oswego have found the spirit of study too strong to remain away from the circle, and are re-reading the course, being hopeful because of their previous study.—Clover Circle of Oneida is now, after an annoying delay, firmly on its feet with work mapped out for the year.—Bedford Circle despite its discouragements has, by virtue of its genuine Chautauqua spirit, to expect a most profitable year.—"Our circle has always been interesting and instructive; we feel that Chautauqua affords us a grand opportunity," writes appreciatively the secretary at Byron, whose circle proves its worth by retaining five graduates and several seal readers.—The circle at Castile has been reinforced by eleven new members this year.—From accounts of Piermont, Earlville, Walton, Jamaica, and Alpha of Cortland, there is ground for sure anticipation of symmetrical development in those circles.

NEW JERSEY.—Ray Palmer Circle of Newark will furnish graduates next year but retains a membership of all classes.—The large class reorganized recently at Passaic has good reason to expect "large rewards for its winter's work."—Orange Circle of Newark protests that "though small it is thoroughly alive and intensely interested." To the regular features of the meetings are added occasional papers on subjects pertinent to the course.—Millville Circle experienced a large multiplication of its membership at its reopening.

PENNSYLVANIA.—Bethlehem Circle steps forward with even pace, attracting several recruits making a thriving membership.—The pleasant little circle at Holicong now numbers ten, doing prompt and effective work.—The Lionier Circle exerts a sufficient attraction to retain as active members certain legislators who find time amid state duties to keep up their readings.—Half a score, half old and half new members, keep a live interest in the Philadelphia Circle.—The Bereans of Pittsburgh, the Baldwin, Wiconisco, and Wilkinsburg Circles, and the Wallace Bruce of Allegheny and Vincent of Altoona send accounts of greater or less length, manifesting the elements of growth which redound in Chautauqua's honor.—The Coatesville correspondent praises the "Play of Colonies," found in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, proved by the circle to be a most instructive one. The circle has begun on a very commendable line of industry.

NORTH CAROLINA.—A short letter from the circle at Raleigh indicates growing prosperity.

FLORIDA.—A large class at Citra is capacious

enough to receive a new enlistment this year, all "helping each other over the ridges of the course."

OHIO.—An old acquaintance letter comes from the circle at Toledo from which encouraging notes are gleaned.—Interesting must be the meetings of the Bellaire Circle of forty-two members, half '94's and half '95's, gentlemen preponderating. The programs are based on those of THE CHAUTAUQUAN. One of the two hours is devoted to historical recitals, and one evening a month is given to "Physical Life." Essays and debates, readings and recitations are enjoyed, no one having failed so far to fill his part. The steady improvement in the circle is traced to its democratic spirit and variety of exercises.—The Hilltop Circle of Monroe is engaged in interesting outsiders to the extent of coming to listen to its exercises, hoping sensibly to increase its members and spread the leaven of its development.—Emerson Circle of Eaton, Alpha of Bryan, Archbald and Covington Circles are the strongholds of systematic and fruitful activity.—The reorganization of the Hartwell Circle was preceded by the distribution of circulars announcing the event, which brought out a generous hearing to a program consisting of an address on Chautauqua by a visitor, who infused into the audience his own warmth, twenty-seven of those present uniting with the circle. Another member at the same meeting read a creditable poem ending with the following stanza:

"Ah, yes! There is a lowly way
In which we hear the Savior say,
'Be in the world, not of it! May
We brave the world's derision;
Nor to the right or left hand turn,
But at His feet strive hard to learn,
Till *Finis coronat opus* burn
Above a heavenly vision."

INDIANA.—Several seal readers are found in the South Bend Circle.—A large increase with still greater prospects is reported of the Logansport Circle.—Wabash Epworth Circle and Orland Circle report old-time steadiness, and Elkhart may feel well-equipped to enter upon a rugged ascent, trusting to strength found in numbers.

WISCONSIN.—Circles at Lake Geneva, Neenah, and the Chippewas of Eau Claire are all reported in a thriving condition.

ILLINOIS.—The circle at Argyle entering its third year remains intact and compact.—'95's are sprinkled among the membership of Crescent Circle at Belvidere.—Fourteen readers, some seal ones, at Grand Crossing, Chicago, find time to press onward and upward through Chautauqua study, amid the city's whirl. The neigh-

boring circle at Hyde Park also in Chicago, now numbers twenty, all "anticipating another year of great profit."—Hyperion of Aurora says that although last year was an instructive one, this is to be far more so, the class being "determined to push through the whole course." Meetings have been made vividly interesting by experiments relating to the lessons on physical life.—Pomegranate Circle of Olney comes up to time with its old members starting afresh.—"We have no drones in our circle," writes the secretary of Elizabeth B. Browning Circle at Mont Clare, where a device to add to the pleasant memories of the four years' course is practiced by one of the members, who photographs the meetings as they occur at the various homes as a souvenir for the hostess. The circle claims to have many happy and instructive hours thus kept in memory.—Urbana and Morris Circles both report cheerily of their reorganization.

KENTUCKY.—Habberton Circle at Ashland reopens with a cosy membership of nine affording each one ample opportunities for expression.

ALABAMA.—"You can never estimate the leavening influence of Chautauqua; those who go into it feel an irresistible desire to carry the good news," is the hearty greeting from the Tuskegee Circle, convinced that Chautauqua is the "Renaissance of the 19th century." It is needless to say the circle is advancing.

MINNESOTA.—Mankato Circle reports a membership of twenty-three and good working equipment, comprised in a well-drafted constitution, board of officers, program committee, and vigor among the members.—The Pierian Circle at the State Prison now numbers forty. A letter from the secretary shows a deep interest among the members, whose adherence is pledged to a strict and well-drawn constitution.—A number of graduates at St. Paul desirous of reviewing the course have reorganized adding many new names to their list. The circle called the Plymouth is now well into the year's study.

IOWA.—A very energetic circle of twenty-five members is reorganized at Stuart this year.—Shenandoah Circle numbers thirty, having doubled its last year's membership.—Sioux City boasts of four or five Chautauqua circles, one, the Philomathian, being especially reported as keeping abreast of the times in adding some topics of the day to its regular course of study.—"We are doing more thorough work this year than ever before," pledges the secretary of the flourishing Marion Circle.—"More of our circle seem to be earnestly reading, and reading more intelligently," comes from the East Des Moines Circle, which has enjoyed several profit-

able meetings this year.—Waukon and Quick Circles, and Pleasant Hour Circle of Sac City are making good records.

MISSOURI.—Kansas City mail brings reports of two circles in that city, named the Mary Gardner and the Fuller, each with a membership of seven and each very hopeful of more.—The Paul H. Hayne Circle at Linneus has entered on its second year, with an increased membership reaching twenty-one. The programs are closely followed and evidence proves the circle to be a wide-awake one.—Higginsville circle has already given one literary and musical entertainment and enters into its study with abounding courage and vim.—Good accounts come also from Sedalia and Glasgow Circles.

ARKANSAS.—The Chapman Circle entering the second year, now carries some seal courses.

SOUTH DAKOTA.—Hiawatha Circle at Mitchell is alert and sends in its report of reorganization and reawakened energy.

NEBRASKA.—Seward Circle of Omaha asks for a dozen blanks to accommodate its new members.—Announcements come from Red Cloud and Stanton, that the circles in those places desire to be kept informed of Chautauqua movements, having no intention of losing their hold on the work.

KANSAS.—The South End and West Side Circles illuminating their respective portions of Wichita, desire, in the first case, to be recognized at the central office, having done the reading for a year; in the second, to announce their assured success, numbering twenty-three and "working hard."—Leavenworth Circle is a decidedly growing one, having a membership of thirty-three, seventeen being '94's and the rest '95's.—A very good letter informs the office of the substantial progress being made by the Wells-ville Circle, "faithful, vigorous, and eager to learn." Weekly meetings in this as in many circles sound the keynote of success.—Ten in one circle of Kingsley and Burlingame Circle convince us of their prosperity.

TEXAS.—The first month's work of the Elethean Circle at Cleburne gives satisfaction, being "determined to make this year the most diligent, persevering, and successful of its existence." The class numbers thirty, of whom we shall probably hear again.

COLORADO.—Yucca Palm of Lamar and Crested Butte Circle each reorganized with a membership of eight.

WASHINGTON.—Conspicuous among circles of Seattle is the Burwell, one of several years' standing; this circle is fortunate in possessing as members some of the Chautauqua leaders of the state. The Lake Union Circle is composed of

ladies who meet afternoons, all being devoted to the work.—Fairhaven Circle has enlarged its limit of membership to accommodate applicants, and is more thriving than ever.—Three of Tacoma's five circles have been heard from as being reorganized and in active operation; the Manzanita Circle has as president Prof. R. S. Bingham, member of the program committee of the State Summer Assembly; Vincent Circle enters its second year with twenty-four members and a scholarly president; Longfellow Circle, the first organized in Tacoma, now enters its seventh year with twenty-one members.—The letter from the Snohomish Circle is accompanied by a poem by G. T. Sorenson, in some respects more than ordinary. A stanza reads:

"But see yonder beautiful fountain so bright;
See it bubbling and sparkling and pure.
Go drink, for in it is naught but delight;
Go wash, for no filth it endures;
'Tis the fountain of Truth welling forth from God's throne,
To cleanse, to renew, to inspire,
And those who drink deeply no falsehood can own,
In the presence of God's holy fire.

Let us haste to this fountain, Chautauquans come,
Let our circle be found 'round its brink;
Let no one be missing but all find a home,
Freely take of its waters and drink;
For there's beauty and health in its life-giving flow,
There is strength in its magical wave;
It will lighten our labor while tolling below,
And at last it is mighty to save."

CALIFORNIA.—"Our meetings, interspersed with discussions of the events of the day, are brimful of interest," reports the scribe of a faithful band at Calistoga.—The circle at San José entering upon its second year has adopted a good method of requiring each member to take part in each meeting. Uniform interest is the necessary result.—Twenty-seven earnest Chautauquans at Martinez resumed work at the bell stroke, and now are able to send an exhilarating report of good programs thoroughly followed, giving a deep educational worth to the meetings. The report rings of promptness and order.—Good news fills the letters from Sacramento and Los Angeles Circles, some of whose members are doing seal reading.—The secretary of the Constantine Circle of San Diego writes as follows:—"The Constantine Circle still takes the lead in San Diego. Its number is limited to twelve. Some have fallen out but others take their places, so the class is always full. This is the fourth year of this circle's existence and there are five to graduate. At the last meeting a portion of the dues was appropriated toward placing a set of books in the Public Library."

THE LIBRARY TABLE.

SELECTION FROM MR. WILBUR'S TABLE TALK.

I THINK I could go near to be a perfect Christian if I were always a visitor, as I have sometimes been, at the house of some hospitable friend. I can show a great deal of self-denial where the best of everything is urged upon me with kindly importunity. It is not so very hard to turn the other cheek for a kiss. And when I meditate upon the pains taken for our entertainment in this life, on the endless variety of seasons, of human character and fortune, on the costliness of the hangings and furniture of our dwelling here, I sometimes feel a singular joy in looking upon myself as God's guest, and cannot but believe that we should all be wiser and happier, because more grateful, if we were always mindful of our privilege in this one regard.

And should we not rate more cheaply any honor that men could pay us, if we remembered that every day we sat at the table of the Great King? Yet must we not forget that we are in strictest bonds His servants also; for there is no impiety so abject as that which expects to be dead-headed (*ut ita dicam*) through life, and which, calling itself trust in Providence, is in reality asking Providence to trust us and taking up all our goods on false pretenses. It is a wise rule to take the world as we find it, not always to leave it so.—*Lowell's "The Biglow Papers."*

THE FANCY SHOT.

"RIFLEMAN, shoot me a fancy shot,
Straight at the heart of yon prowling vidette;
Ring me a ball in the glittering spot
That shines on his breast like an amulet."

"Ah, captain, here goes for a fine drawn bead,
There's music around when my barrel's in tune."

Crack! went the rifle, the messenger sped,
And dead from his horse fell the ringing dragon.

"Now, rifleman, steal through the the bushes,
and snatch
From your victim some trinket to handsel first
blood;
A button, a loop, or that luminous patch
That gleams in the moon like a diamond
stud."

"O captain! I staggered and sunk on my track,
When I gazed on the face of that fallen vidette,
For he looked so like you, as he lay on his back,
That my heart rose upon me and masters me yet.

"But I snatched off the trinket—this locket of gold;
An inch from the center my lead broke its way,
Scarce grazing the picture so fair to behold,
Of a beautiful lady in bridal array."

"Ha! rifleman, fling me the locket!—'tis she,
My brother's young bride,—and the fallen dragon
Was her husband—Hush! soldier, 't was heaven's decree,
We must bury him there, by the light of the moon."

"But hark! the far bugles their warnings unite;
War is a virtue, weakness a sin;
There's a lurking and loping around us to-night;—
Load again, rifleman, keep your hand in!"*
—*Charles Dawson Shanly.*

ARE AMERICANS DEBTORS?

WHAT has this nation done to repay the world for the benefits we have received from others? We have been repeatedly told, and sometimes, too, in a tone of affected impartiality, that the highest praise which can fairly be given to the American mind is that of possessing an enlightened selfishness; that if the philosophy and talents of this country, with all their effects, were forever swept into oblivion, the loss would be felt only by ourselves; and that if to the accuracy of this general charge, the labors of Franklin present an illustrious, it is still but a solitary, exception.

The answer may be given confidently and triumphantly. Without abandoning the fame of our eminent men, whom Europe has been slow and reluctant to honor, we would reply that the intellectual power of this people has exerted itself in conformity to the general system of our institutions and manners; and therefore, that for the proof of its existence and the

* American War Ballads and Lyrics. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

measure of its force we must look not so much to the works of prominent individuals as to the great aggregate results; and if Europe has hitherto been willfully blind to the value of our example and the exploits of our sagacity, courage, invention, and freedom, the blame must rest with her and not with America.

Is it nothing for the universal good of mankind to have carried into successful operation a system of self-government, uniting personal liberty, freedom of opinion, and equality of rights, with national power and dignity, such as had before existed only in the Utopian dreams of philosophers? Is it nothing, in moral science, to have anticipated in sober reality numerous plans of reform in civil and criminal jurisprudence which are but now received as plausible theories by the politicians and economists of Europe? Is it nothing to have been able to call forth on every emergency, either in war or peace, a body of talents always equal to the difficulty? Is it nothing to have, in less than a half century, exceedingly improved the sciences of political economy, of law, and of medicine, with all their auxiliary branches, to have enriched human knowledge by the accumulation of a great mass of useful facts and observations, and to have augmented the power and the comforts of civilized man by miracles of mechanical invention? Is it nothing to have given the world examples of disinterested patriotism, of political wisdom, of public virtue; of learning, eloquence, and valor, never exerted save for some praiseworthy end?

It is sufficient to have briefly suggested these considerations; every mind would anticipate me in filling up the details.—*G. C. Verplanck.*

A QUESTION.

"THERE, now, Dizzy, don't say I never invited you to go anywhere," drawled Homer, tossing some bits of blue pasteboard into his sister's lap as he passed her.

She glanced at the tickets with a little frown—there were six of them—and there was so little money to spare.

"What is it, Homer?" she asked, rather reluctantly.

"O, just a church entertainment. You have to help the churches, you know."

"I don't know any such a thing," said Desire flushing a little. Not in this way, I mean."

"O, it's the way everybody does in these days. You can hardly refuse, you know."

"You can refuse to go into unnecessary expense. How much did you pay for these tickets, Homer?"

"Only thirty cents apiece."

"And one dollar and eighty cents for the lot. Why did you buy so many?"

"Well, I couldn't do less. Some of the boys bought ten or a dozen."

"Then you were solicited to buy them?"

"Certainly. Young ladies, you know. Can't refuse when a pretty girl tackles you."

"You could if you had strength of character."

"Strength of fiddlesticks," quoth Homer, disgustedly. "Desire, you are the most provoking; there is no pleasing you."

"Not by foolish extravagance. What are you going to do with your six tickets?"

"O, pass 'em round. There's father and Aunt Margaret and you and Duke and myself and—"

"And the dog," supplied Desire, grimly.

"O, I shall easily dispose of the sixth. We shall find plenty to use the tickets, no doubt; and if we don't there's no harm done. You shouldn't begrudge the money; it's only given to the Lord."

"I doubt that very much," said Desire, sharply.

"You do? Well, I hope you are not ill-natured enough to suspect church people of misappropriating funds."

"No; I only suspect them of resorting to improper methods of securing them."

"Indeed! Well, Desire, you do take up the most unqualified notions. What is improper in the method? Isn't it an honest transaction? Don't you get the worth of your money?"

"Sometimes you do."

"You always do."

"Well, I have heard of instances where it has been questioned."

"Well, it will not be in this instance. Everybody who buys a ticket to this entertainment will receive more than the value of his thirty cents."

"Then, where does the giving to the Lord come in?"

"Would it come in any better if you did not receive the value of your money? I hope you would not recommend a dishonest method of extracting funds for a church."

"No. That is the reason I don't recommend this entertainment method."

"But I say it's strictly honest."

"And I say it is not. It is not honest to do anything under false pretension, is it? When you said, just now, that the money you paid for those tickets was given to the Lord, you made a false statement."

"Why, Dizzy!"

"Homer, why did you buy the tickets?"

"To help the church, mainly."

"I doubt your motive."

"You do, indeed! Well, if it wasn't benevolence, what was it, then?"

"O, it may have been most anything; people assist these church fairs from various motives. You said you could scarcely refuse. That is what impels most people, I think, a feeling of obligation."

"Well, should it not? Should not every one feel it a duty to help the church?"

"In the right way, certainly. God doesn't want His church sustained by a feeling of obligation."

"There you are wrong, Dizzy. It is an obligation; just as much as any other debt we owe to Him."

"Why not, then, give our money to the cause in a fair and square way, such as we know will please Him, instead of making it a matter of selfishness?"

"Selfishness! Desire, I tell you there are hundreds of people who attend these affairs who do not get the slightest pleasure out of them. In fact, I suppose to more than half they are an absolute bore. How can it be otherwise, when such things are run to death? It requires great self-sacrifice, often, to attend them; but there is no other way. A church couldn't be kept running in this day without fairs and festivals and other entertainments."

"What is the particular object of this entertainment to-morrow evening?" asked Desire.

"O, I don't know, I believe they want a new carpet, or some such fol-de-rol. That's usually the case."

"Well, we need a new carpet, too," said Desire, with grave sparkles in her eyes. "Suppose we get up a fair or something of the kind. I do not believe it's possible for us to raise the money in any other way. Why shall we not have a benefit? We could get up a little play of some kind; a few tableaux, perhaps, and some of our neighbors would contribute a little music, no doubt. Then we could sell cake and ice cream. I shouldn't wonder if we raised enough in an evening to buy a good ingrain carpet for the parlor, and we need it sadly." Homer regarded her with an air of resignation.

"Dizzy, my dear," he said languidly, "I fear you have overtaxed yourself to-day. You must be feverish."

Desire laughed softly.

"And yet, why is my plan absurd? Is it not the very one adopted by the children of a Heavenly King? If members of so royal a household defray their petty expenses in this way, why may not we?"

"You're a century behind the times, my dear. You should have been born during the Revolu-

tion. You're a born reformer. You're quite too late for your mission. Church fairs are the order of the day—a religious institution you might call them. So I would advise you to adopt the popular verdict in their favor and make the best of what you can't prevent. The weakest always goes to the wall, you know."

"O, yes, I know," smiled Desire, as she folded up her work. "I was not meditating a reform; that will come in time. The majority haven't got their eyes open yet. They look on all this as Christian service, and to some it may be. Those who have no money can contribute their time and talents,—turn them into money, really. And yet, after all, is it not a cheap way of serving the Lord? Wouldn't it have a better look, a more honorable look, some way, if the sons and daughters of a king did not resort to quite so much begging, or soliciting, if you like the word better? Is it exactly noble to tempt me through my love of music, or you from some other selfish motive, to pay money into the treasury of our King? Or if it involves sacrifice, why not make the sacrifice in a more acceptable manner? These roundabout ways of serving the Lord are questionable, to say the least. Honest people who are not Christians cannot fail to doubt our sincerity."

"Say Amen if you please, Dizzy," drawled Homer, wearily, as he rose and lit the lamp. "You have worn your audience completely out."

He ran up stairs on tiptoe, while Desire stole away to her own little room pondering.—*Reese Rockwell.*

A COLONIAL LEGEND.

In the golden age of the province of the New Netherlands, the people of the Manhattoes were alarmed, one sultry afternoon, just about the time of the summer solstice, by a tremendous storm of thunder and lightning. The rain descended in such torrents as absolutely to spatter up and smoke along the ground. It was one of those unparalleled storms that happen only once within the memory of that venerable personage, "the oldest inhabitant." At length the storm abated and the setting sun, breaking from under the fringed borders of the clouds, made the broad bosom of the bay to gleam like a sea of molten gold.

The word was given from the fort that a ship was standing up the bay. The arrival of a ship, in those early times of the settlement, was an event of vast importance to the inhabitants.

* Ringing Bella. New York: Hunt and Eaton. Cincinnati: Cranston and Stowe.

The news from the fort therefore brought all the populace down to the battery.

The ship became more distinct to the naked eye; she was a stout, round, Dutch-built vessel and came riding over the long waving billows. The sentinel, who had given notice of her approach, declared that he first caught sight of her when she was in the center of the bay; and that she broke suddenly on his sight, just as if she had come out of the bosom of the black thunder-cloud.

The ship was now repeatedly hailed, but made no reply, and, passing by the fort, stood on up the Hudson. A gun was brought to bear on her, and with some difficulty loaded and fired. The shot seemed absolutely to pass through the ship, and to skip along the water on the other side, but no notice was taken of it. What was strange, she had all her sails set, and sailed right against wind and tide, which were both down the river. Upon this Hans Van Pelt, who was harbor-master, ordered his boat and set off to board her; but after rowing two or three hours, he returned without success. Sometimes he would get within one or two hundred yards of her, and then, in a twinkling she would be half a mile off. He got near enough, however, to see the crew, who were all dressed in the Dutch style, the officers in doublets and high hats and feathers; not a word was spoken by any one on board; they stood as motionless as so many statues, and the ship seemed as if left to her own government. Thus she kept on, away up the river, lessening and lessening in the evening sunshine, until she faded from sight, like a little white cloud melting away in the summer sky.

Messengers were dispatched to different places on the river; but they returned without any tidings; the ship had made no port. Day after day, and week after week elapsed; but she never returned down the Hudson. As, however, the council seemed solicitous for intelligence, they had it in abundance. The captains of the sloops seldom arrived without bringing some report of having seen the strange ship at different parts of the river; sometimes near the Palisadoes, sometimes off Croton Point, and sometimes in the highlands; but she was never reported as having been seen above the highlands. Her appearance was always just after, or just before, or just in the midst of, unruly weather; and she was known by all the skippers and voyagers of the Hudson by the name of "the storm-ship."

Old Hans Van Pelt insisted that this must be the *Flying Dutchman* which had so long haunted Table Bay. Others suggested it might be Hen-

drick Hudson and his crew of the *Half Moon*, who, it was well known, had once run aground in the upper part of the river in seeking a north-west passage to China. This opinion passed current, for it had already been reported that Hendrick Hudson and his crew haunted the Kaatskill Mountains; and it appeared very reasonable to suppose that his ship might infest the river where the enterprise was baffled, or that it might bear the shadowy crew to their periodical revels in the mountain.—*Washington Irving.*

SAYINGS OF EMERSON.

If eyes were made for seeing,

Then beauty is its own excuse for being.

Character is nature in its highest form.

No amount of training can make a gentleman or gentlewoman unless the gentle spirit be within.

The person who screams, or uses the superlative degree, or converses with heat puts whole drawing-rooms to flight.

The only reward of virtue is virtue; the only way to have a friend is to be one.

Flowers and fruits are always fit presents; flowers because they are a proud assertion that a ray of beauty outvalues all the utilities of the world. Fruits are acceptable gifts, because they are the flower of commodities, and admit of fantastic values being attached to them.

A friend is most a friend of whom the best remains to learn.

True friends visit us in prosperity only when invited, but in adversity they come uninvited.

The ornaments of a home are the friends who frequent it.

Life alone can impart life, and though we should burst, we can only be valued as we make ourselves valuable.

And ye shall succor men;

'Tis nobleness to serve;

Help them who cannot help again

Beware from right to swerve.

All I have seen teaches me to trust the Creator for all I have not seen.

You cannot do wrong without suffering wrong.

We aim above the mark to hit the mark.

New actions are the only apologies and explanations of old ones which the noble can bear to offer or to receive.

Do what we can summer will have its flies; if

we walk in the woods we must feel mosquitoes ;
if we go a-fishing, we must expect a wet coat.

The rain has spoiled the farmer's day,
Shall sorrow put my books away?
Thereby are two days lost :
Nature shall mind her own affairs,
I will attend my proper cares
In rain, or sun, or frost.

SHAKING HANDS.

THERE are few things of more common occurrence than shaking hands ; and yet I do not recollect that much has been speculated upon the subject. I confess, when I consider to what unimportant and futile matters the attention of writers and readers has often been directed, I am surprised that no one has been found to handle so important a subject as this, and attempt to give the public a rational view of the doctrine and discipline of shaking hands. It is a subject on which I have myself reflected a good deal, and I beg leave to offer a few remarks on the origin of the practice, and the various forms in which it is exercised.

I have been unable to find among the ancients any distinct mention of shaking hands. They followed the heartier practice of hugging or embracing, which has not wholly disappeared among grown persons in Europe and children in our own country, and has unquestionably the advantage on the score of cordiality. When the ancients confined the business of salutation to the hands only, they joined but did not shake them. I am inclined to think that the practice grew up in the age of chivalry, when the cumbersome iron in which the knights were cased prevented their embracing, and when, with fingers clothed in steel, the simple touch or joining of the hands would have been but cold welcome ; so that a prolonged junction was a natural resort, to express cordiality ; and, as it would have been awkward to keep the hands unemployed in this position, a gentle agitation or shaking might have been naturally introduced.

Without therefore availing myself of the privilege of theorists to supply by conjecture the want of history or tradition, I shall pass immediately to the enumeration of these forms.

The pump-handle shake is the first which deserves notice. It is executed by taking your friend's hand and working it up and down through an arc of fifty degrees for about a minute and a half. No attempt should be made to give it grace, and still less vivacity, as the few instances in which the latter has been tried have resulted in dislocating the shoulder of the person on whom it has been attempted.

The pendulum shake may be mentioned next, as being somewhat similar in character, but moving, as the name indicates, in a horizontal instead of a perpendicular direction. It is executed by sweeping your hand horizontally toward your friend's, and after the junction is effected, rowing with it from one side to the other, according to the pleasures of the parties.

The tourniquet shake is the next in importance. It derives its name from the instruments made use of by surgeons to stop the circulation of the blood in a limb about to be amputated. It is performed by clasping the hand of your friend, as far as you can in your own, and then contracting the muscles of your thumb, fingers, and palm till you have induced any degree of compression you may propose. Particular care ought to be taken, if your own hand is as hard and as big as a frying-pan and that of your friend as small and soft as a young maiden's, not to make use of the tourniquet shake to the degree that will force the small bones of the wrist out of place.

The cordial grapple is a shake of some interest. It is a hearty, boisterous agitation of your friend's hand, accompanied with moderate pressure and loud, cheerful exclamations of welcome. It is an excellent traveling shake, and well adapted to make friends.

The Peter Grievous touch is opposed to the cordial grapple. It is a pensive, tranquil junction, followed by a mild, desultory motion, a cast-down look, and an inarticulate inquiry after your friend's health.

The prude major and prude minor are nearly monopolized by ladies. They cannot be accurately described, but are constantly noticed in practice. They never extend beyond the fingers ; and the prude major allows you to touch even them only down to the second joint. The prude minor gives you the whole of the forefinger. Considerable skill may be shown in performing these with nice variations, such as extending the left hand instead of the right, or having a new glossy kid glove over the finger you extend.

I might go through a long list of the grip royal, the saw-mill shake, and the shake with malice prepense, but these are only factitious combinations of the three fundamental forms already described as the pump handle, the pendulum, and the tourniquet. I should trouble you with a few remarks, in conclusion, on the mode of shaking hands as an indication of characters, but I see a friend coming up the avenue who is addicted to the pump-handle. I dare not tire my wrist by writing further.—*Edward Everett.*

TALK ABOUT BOOKS.

Biography.

The latest biographer of Robert Browning* is Mrs. Sutherland Orr, who in a discursive work of two volumes deals with the life and teachings of the poet from the standpoint of one who has found in them truth and philosophy for her own guidance. Mrs. Orr may not always represent the meaning of Browning, indeed in some passages the reader is thankful to detect that her agnostic interpretations are her own. Yet the appreciative tone throughout the work bespeaks consideration for one who has shown much that is attractive and helpful in the poet's life, and some additional light on his works. Not the least charm of the book is the inclusion of some of the letters of his wife, Elizabeth Barrett, with many of those of Browning.—In contrast to the exhaustive Nicolay-Hay Life of Abraham Lincoln is one recently prepared by Carl Schurz† which appeals to the class of few spare moments. In brief space, the salient points of the liberator's career are brought out with the clean-cut clearness of a cameo. Credit is given to the most valuable revelations of Nicolay and Hay, which, condensed, are included. Like all of Lincoln's biographers, Mr. Schurz is an enthusiast in his work, but justifies his ground at every step, enticing the reader into the same admiration he holds for "one of the greatest Americans and the best of men." The life is a rarely interesting one to young or old, regardless of sectional bias.—Another volume in the series by M. de Saint-Armand on the French Revolution relates to "Marie Antoinette and the Downfall of Royalty."‡ The events all occurring in '92 are told with the fullest detail too tedious for any but a leisurely reader. The author's characterizations of many who assumed a prominent rôle at the time are interesting and catchy, though at times biased, as that of Mme. Roland, the "Bluestocking of the Revolution"; extracts from diaries and correspondence not accessible to many, lend a historic value to the book.—A short life of John Wesley|| has been written by

*Life and Letters of Robert Browning. By Mrs. Sutherland Orr. In two volumes. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Company.

†Abraham Lincoln. By Carl Schurz. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Company. Price, \$1.00.

‡Marie Antoinette and the Downfall of Royalty. By Imbert de Saint-Armand. Translated by Elizabeth Gilbert Martin. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. Price, \$1.25.

||John Wesley. A Study for the Times. By Thos. J. Dodd, D.D. Cincinnati: Cranston & Stow. New York: Hunt & Eaton. Price, 60 cts.

Dr. T. J. Dodd, suggested, perhaps, by the centennial anniversary of Wesley's death. The aim of the author is not to write a personal biography so much as to discuss some features of Wesley's character and work. The topics, Wesley as a man, a Christian reformer, and a disciple of freedom, are treated in a way to increase the vigor of the rapidly growing religious body of which John Wesley was the founder.—In the preface to a life of Dr. S. G. Howe,* the writer excuses himself from the use of letters and data from journals on the ground that they will be used in a more lengthy biography in preparation, and acknowledges his indebtedness to the memoir already written of Dr. Howe by his wife, Julia Ward Howe. These facts could certainly have served as reasons to absolve the present biographer from writing on the subject at all. However, Dr. Howe's varied labors for Greece and Poland, his devotion to human freedom and achievements in the education of afflicted ones, as well as his connection with the anti-slavery movement, are related at considerable length. Some material included, concerning Wendell Phillips and other Abolitionists, if not proportionate to the scope of the work is new to the public.—In a volume of sketches of "Famous English Statesmen of Victoria's Reign,"† Mrs. Bolton has contributed some very readable chapters both of English biography and politics. The characters are well chosen to set forth the prominent questions of the century in England. With the story of Peel is related that of Catholic emancipation; with Bright, the repeal of the corn laws; with Gladstone, improved land laws and the struggle for Irish Home Rule. The eight sketches are each accompanied by a portrait and condensed well are adapted to hasty readers.—A neat and compact little study of Cotton Mather‡ throws into favorable relief the oft depicted life of that remarkable Puritan. Probably no better representation of the character of Mather has been shown, and none more favorable, since Mr. Wendell accepts as honest Mather's record of his own inner workings. The author's portrayal of early Puritanism and the witchcraft

*Dr. S. G. Howe, The Philanthropist. By F. B. Sanborn. New York: Funk & Wagnalls. Price, \$1.50.

†Famous English Statesmen of Victoria's Reign. By Sarah Knowles Bolton. New York: Thos. Y. Crowell & Co.

‡Cotton Mather, The Puritan Priest. By Barrett Wendell. New York: Dodd, Mead and Company.

trials is very forcible and interesting.—With artless art Joseph Hardy Neesima,* the first ordained Japanese evangelist, is made to tell the chequered story of his life, by his foster brother, A. S. Hardy. The story beginning with the escape of the boy Neesima from Japan when recapture meant death, his education by Alpheus Hardy, the Boston shipowner, his subsequent return to Japan as native reformer to find old institutions overthrown and the kingdom favorable to evangelists, his labors among his people, and his travels are graphically told. Simple modesty clothes the narrative, whose truth is more romantic than many an exploited fiction.—The life of Austin Phelps† contains a twofold interest, in that it concerns the life of a unique character and bears the impress of the biographer's genius. Few daughters could be found able to write their father's biography and not overdo, but Professor Phelps' daughter has done this with a taste and fidelity to fact, so happily that in this biography the friends of the late professor will be able to trace the lines of character to the most delicate, which bound them to the gentle scholar in life. The latter third of the volume, which contains two handsome portraits of him, is devoted to his letters, which mirror the same deep, often sorrowing, and always sympathetic nature portrayed by the gifted pen of Mrs. Phelps Ward.—The third and fourth volumes of the translation of the "Memoirs of Talleyrand,"‡ the first two of which were given an extended notice some months since, have appeared, continuing with the Revolution of 1830. Still with a smile and a smooth hand Talleyrand continues to move the wheels within wheels of diplomacy, securing the recognition of Belgian neutrality by the powers, favoring separation from Holland, arousing interest in favor of the Poles, ever bearing a calm face in the political perplexities filling his career. Plot and counterplot, attack, and parry of governments are told. The appendix contains a number of Talleyrand's letters ever bland and graceful, with a dramatic touch lacking in the memoirs.

Historical, Social, and Economic. THE story of Swiss liberty and independence always reads like a romance. Without treating Swiss history with a view to historical sequence,

*Life and Letters of Joseph Hardy Neesima. By Arthur S. Hardy. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Company. Price, \$2.00.

†Austin Phelps. A Memoir. By Elizabeth Stuart Phelps. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. Price, \$2.00.

‡Memoirs of Prince de Talleyrand. Edited by the Duc de Broglie. Volumes III. and IV. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. Price, \$2.50 each.

Mr. Boyd Winchester has written a book* of popular interest, the result of observations and study made during a long residence in Switzerland. The development of popular government in the Cantons is sketched from the time of the "Eternal Covenant" in 1291, and the many parallels in the federal polity of Switzerland and the United States are brought out in a way that adds interest to the book.—English Social Movements† is a book of observations made by a student of social economics during a long stay in East London and the north of England. Movements affecting the condition of labor are discussed, and there are chapters treating of the work of organized charity and the church, and the results accomplished by University Extension. The different social movements are tersely sketched, showing their influence upon the life of the English people.—For the student of economics who has been thoroughly trained in the fundamentals of the science and who is on the way to an individual judgment of economic subjects, the translation‡ of Professor Gide's book will be a real help. The author sustains his position as a member of the classical school. Considered as a treatise of theoretical presentation alone, the book is valuable. It was not to be expected that the modern comparative method would be employed but the neglect of recent economic investigation is a noticeable defect lessening the value of the book, which will be regarded chiefly as a help by those who read both sides of questions in the endeavor to form a sound judgment.—The extent and sources of our wealth, its distribution in the different branches of trade and industry, and the economic laws which determine wages and profits are the subjects which are discussed in a volume|| of three hundred and fifty pages. The question of how to create wealth is assumed to be settled and the problem of equal opportunities for all and the just distribution of wealth among those who have created it, is economically considered. The author aims to escape the theorizing of certain secluded orthodox writers and gains much in his practical treatment of important questions. —"Economic and Industrial Delusions"§ is a book pointing out the fallacies of political theory

*The Swiss Republic. By Boyd Winchester. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company. Price, \$2.00.

†English Social Movements. By Robert A. Woods. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. Price, \$1.50.

‡Principles of Political Economy. By Prof. Charles Gide. Translated from the French by E. P. Jacobsen. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. Price, \$2.00.

||The Distribution of Wealth. By Rufus Cope. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company. Price, \$2.00.

§Economic and Industrial Delusions. By A. B. and Henry Farguham. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. Price, \$1.50.

as applied to Protection and kindred subjects. Notwithstanding the lines contain a tinge of partisan feeling the conclusions are in most cases just and evolved from premises supported by fairly accurate facts and statistics.

Philosophy and
Morals.

IN his "Synthetic Philosophy"* Part IV. of Ethics, Herbert Spencer catches the attention at the start. Though the subject threatens to overwhelm with bewilderment any one who ventures into its mazes, the reader eagerly progresses, — bold under his competent leader. There is no ado made about coming at a point; the points are left to solicit their own notice and the reader involuntarily pays obeisance to them before passing on. Justice is the topic under discussion and the evolution of justice or rights among animals and the various human tribes is shown; how far one may claim rights, the progress in the world's idea of rights, and the many phases of the great subject, are comprehensively discussed. — A bright and valuable treatise † sums up the representative philosophies and considers the pertinent question "Can they logically reach reality?" It is one of the best directed and best written books that have appeared. The matter is handled with expedition and power, while its "everyday" binding, good paper, and wide margins invite notes. — A delightful preparatory work ‡ for those who are about to venture into the realms of philosophy has been arranged by Marrietta Kies from the writings of William T. Harris. The fundamental truths of philosophy are clearly put, without flourish and unburdened by a redundancy of illustrations. The examples which are cited are practical and applicable. — A number of lectures on "The Natural History of Man and the Rise and Progress of Philosophy"§ which were given by Alexander Kinmont fifty years ago, have been re-edited in volume form. Their interest and originality of thought shine out through the gathering mists of half a century although many of the views advanced have meanwhile shrunk to narrowness and prejudice. The book will be found suitable for reading in connection with

other works on philosophy. — "Conduct as a Fine Art"* presents a scheme of teaching morals in the public schools without reference to any special religion. A reasonable discussion on the advisability of so doing is presented in the introduction and a number of stories by Edward Payson Jackson are added which bear on character building. The idea is good and is well treated; the chapters are pithy and finished; but the work is ponderous for the short time which is to be devoted to it. — Many persons who are specially interested in directing aright the lives of children and young people will be glad to read the elementary treatise on Christian Morality called "The Right Road." † It treats the subject thoroughly, giving many illustrations and arguments which will strongly appeal to the young reason and inclination. — "Application and Achievement" ‡ is the title well applied to a number of essays. It represents the general run of the argument. The style is not attractive. It is cumulative and at first difficult and monotonous but improves upon acquaintance. Though too heavy for brilliancy the essays are sensible and show a reasonable measure of originality in thought. — The treatise "What is Reality?" § bears the impress of a deep and daring original thinker. In many parts it is intensely new, having builded its arguments on the modern discoveries and deductions of science. Weighty matters are handled with a grace and dexterity that almost belie their difficultness. The author's point in view is to show that the premises of a person's religion are as real as is any part of his knowledge, and that the truths deduced from these premises are as well founded as those used in science.

The Century
Dictionary.

The appearance of the sixth and last huge volume of the Century Dictionary † brings to accomplishment a feat in American and English lexicography. The entire dictionary, whose compilation has been compassed in the last two years, consists of 7,046 large quarto pages, containing about 500,000 definitions of over 215,000 words,

* Conduct as a Fine Art. By Nicholas Paine Gilman. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin and Company. Price, \$1.50.

† The Right Road. By John W. Kramer. New York: Thomas Whittaker. Price, \$1.75.

‡ Application and Achievement: Essays. By J. Hazard Hartzell. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. Price, \$1.50.

§ What is Reality? By Francis Howe Johnson. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Company. Price, \$2.00.

‡ The Century Dictionary. An Encyclopedic Lexicon of the English Language. Prepared under the superintendence of W. D. Whitney, Ph.D., LL.D. In six volumes. New York: The Century Company.

* Justice: Being Part IV. of the Principles of Ethics. By Herbert Spencer. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

† The Prevailing Types of Philosophy: Can They Logically Reach Reality? By James McCosh, LL.D., Litt. D. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. Price, 75 cts.

‡ Introduction to the Study of Philosophy. By William T. Harris. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

§ The Natural History of Man. By Alexander Kinmont, A.M. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company. Price, \$1.50.

50,000 defined phrases, 300,000 illustrative quotations, and 8,000 cuts. The entirely new words, definitions, and quotations in this dictionary almost outnumber all contained in preceding dictionaries. All ages of English literature from Chaucer to Darwin have yielded their riches to this word-treasury which contains as great a wealth in its physical biological, and technological vocabularies. The dare definition of its enormous word and phrase list would be a valuable addition to the language; this is increased by the discussions and explanations of scholars, which give an encyclopædic value to

the work. A list of over 3,000 authors and authorities cited, is appended. The dictionary closes with a list of amended spellings recommended by the American and English Philological Societies. To this, Prof. W. D. Whitney, under whose supervision the work has been compiled, writes an introduction strongly in favor of corrected English spelling against the "capricious and ignorant orthography of the past." Professor Whitney expresses a hope that future English dictionaries will adopt fully, as the Century Dictionary has in part, the corrected English spelling.

SUMMARY OF IMPORTANT NEWS FOR DECEMBER, 1891.

HOME NEWS.—December 2. Launching of the armored cruiser *New York* at Philadelphia.

December 3. Yale University receives \$343,394 in gifts during the year 1891.

December 4. Attempted assassination of Russell Sage by a madman.—Great damage done to property in the Cumberland Valley by terrific wind and rain storms.

December 7. Opening of Congress. Crisp of Georgia elected Speaker of the House.

December 9. The Ladies' Health Protective Association holds its annual meeting in New York City.

December 10. Washington, D. C., selected as the permanent place for the annual meeting of the National Bar Association.

December 16. Meeting in Kansas City of the Missouri River Improvement Congress; an appropriation of \$6,000,000 a year for Missouri improvements and \$7,000,000 a year for improvements of the Mississippi demanded.

December 17. Nomination of Stephen B. Elkins as Secretary of War.—Dedication of the Drexel Institute of Art, Science, and Industry in Philadelphia.—John G. Whittier celebrates his eighty-fourth birthday.—St. Louis selected as the place for holding the National Prohibition Convention, June 29 and 30, 1892.

December 18. Re-election of Samuel Gompers by the Birmingham Convention as president of the American Federation of Labor.

December 20. Death of Senator Preston B. Plumb of Kansas.

December 22. First annual meeting in Washington of the United Christian Commission.

December 24. Death of ex-Postmaster-General Creswell.

December 25. Terrible accident on the New York Central Railroad near Hastings, N. Y.

December 26. Laying of the corner stone of

Trenton Battle Monument.—The woman's department of the State Insane Asylum at Pontiac, Michigan, destroyed by fire.

December 30. American manufactures receive large concessions by reciprocity agreements with the West Indies and other British possessions.

FOREIGN NEWS.—December 3. Influenza epidemic in Berlin.—Removal of the prohibition of American pork in Austria.

December 4. Application of the foreign consuls at Tien-Tsin, China, for protection.—Death of Dom Pedro, ex-emperor of Brazil.

December 8. Canada decides to impose duties on all fish imported from Newfoundland.—Dr. Welti resigns the presidency of Switzerland.

December 9. Reparation demanded by France for twelve Frenchmen killed in Rio Janeiro by agents of Fonseca.—Newfoundland levies retaliatory duties on Canadian goods.

December 11. Lord Dufferin succeeds Lord Lytton as British ambassador to France.—The Chinese insurrection at an end.

December 14. France breaks off diplomatic relations with Bulgaria.

December 17. The tariff bill passed by the French Senate.

December 18. Violent earthquake in Sicily.

December 21. A thousand native Christians massacred during the recent troubles in northern China.—Death of the Duke of Devonshire.—The population of twelve provinces in Russia numbering 20,000,000 people is said to be starving.

December 23. Rupture in the relations between France and Madagascar.

December 25. Several persons injured by the explosion of bombs during midnight mass in a church in Valencia, Italy.

